# Distributed Source Coding for Interactive Function Computation<sup>1</sup>

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#### Abstract

A two-terminal interactive distributed source coding problem with alternating messages for function computation at both locations is studied. For any number of messages, a computable characterization of the rate region is provided in terms of single-letter information measures. While interaction is useless in terms of the minimum sum-rate for lossless source reproduction at one or both locations, the gains can be arbitrarily large for function computation even when the sources are independent. For a class of sources and functions, interaction is shown to be useless, even with infinite messages, when a function has to be computed at only one location, but is shown to be useful, if functions have to be computed at both locations. For computing the Boolean AND function of two independent Bernoulli sources at both locations, an achievable infinite-message sum-rate with infinitesimal-rate messages is derived in terms of a two-dimensional definite integral and a rate-allocation curve. A general framework for multiterminal interactive function computation based on an information exchange protocol which successively switches among different distributed source coding configurations is developed. For networks with a star topology, multiple rounds of interactive coding is shown to decrease the scaling law of the total network rate by an order of magnitude as the network grows.

#### **Index Terms**

distributed source coding, function computation, interactive coding, rate-distortion region, Slepian-Wolf coding, two-way coding, Wyner-Ziv coding.

#### I. Introduction

In networked systems where distributed inferencing and control needs to be performed, the raw-data (source samples) generated at different nodes (information sources) needs to be transformed and combined in a number of ways to extract actionable information. This requires performing distributed computations on the source samples. A pure data-transfer solution approach would advocate first reliably reproducing the source samples at decision-making nodes and then performing suitable computations to extract actionable information. Two-way interaction and statistical dependencies among source, destination, and relay nodes, would be utilized, if at all, to primarily improve the reliability of data-reproduction than overall computation-efficiency.

However, to maximize the overall computation-efficiency, it is necessary for nodes to interact bidirectionally, perform computations, and exploit statistical dependencies in data as opposed to only generating, receiving, and

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forwarding data. In this paper we attempt to formalize this common wisdom through some examples of distributed function-computation problems with the goal of minimizing the total number of bits exchanged per source sample. Our objective is to highlight the role of interaction in computation-efficiency within a distributed source coding framework involving block-coding asymptotics and vanishing probability of function-computation error. We derive information-theoretic characterizations of the set of feasible coding-rates for these problems and explore the fascinating interplay of function-structure, distribution-structure, and interaction.

#### A. Problem setting

Consider the following general two-terminal interactive distributed source coding problem with alternating messages illustrated in Figure 1. Here, n samples  $\mathbf{X} := X^n := (X(1), \dots, X(n)) \in \mathcal{X}^n$ , of an information source are available at location A. A different location B has n samples  $\mathbf{Y} \in \mathcal{Y}^n$  of a second information source which are statistically correlated to  $\mathbf{X}$ . Location A desires to produce a sequence  $\widehat{\mathbf{Z}}_A \in \mathcal{Z}_A^n$  such that  $d_A^{(n)}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}, \widehat{\mathbf{Z}}_A) \leq D_A$  where  $d_A^{(n)}$  is a nonnegative distortion function of 3n variables. Similarly, location B desires to produce a sequence  $\widehat{\mathbf{Z}}_B \in \mathcal{Z}_B^n$  such that  $d_B^{(n)}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}, \widehat{\mathbf{Z}}_B) \leq D_B$ . All alphabets are assumed to be finite. To achieve the desired objective, t coded messages,  $M_1, \dots, M_t$ , of respective bit rates (bits per source sample),  $R_1, \dots, R_t$ , are sent alternately from the two locations starting with location A of location B. The message sent from a location can depend on the source samples at that location and on all the previous messages (which are available to both locations). There is enough memory at both locations to store all the source samples and messages. An important goal is to characterize the set of all rate t-tuples  $\mathbf{R} := (R_1, \dots, R_t)$  for which both  $\mathbb{P}(d_A^{(n)}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}, \widehat{\mathbf{Z}}_A) > D_A)$  and  $\mathbb{P}(d_B^{(n)}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}, \widehat{\mathbf{Z}}_B) > D_B) \to 0$  as  $n \to \infty$ . This set of rate-tuples is called the rate region.

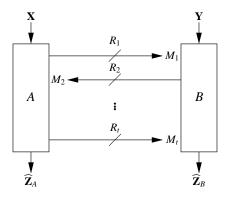


Fig. 1. Interactive distributed source coding with t alternating messages.

## B. Related work

The available literature closely related to this problem can be roughly partitioned into three broad categories. The salient features of related problems in these three categories are summarized below using the notation of the problem setting described above.

1) Communication complexity [1]: Here, **X** and **Y** are typically deterministic, t is not fixed in advance, and  $d_A^{(n)}$  and  $d_B^{(n)}$  are the indicator functions of the sets  $\{\widehat{\mathbf{Z}}_A \neq \mathbf{f}_A(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y})\}$  and  $\{\widehat{\mathbf{Z}}_B \neq \mathbf{f}_B(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y})\}$  respectively. Thus, the goal is to compute the function  $\mathbf{f}_A(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y})$  at location A and the function  $\mathbf{f}_B(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y})$  at location B. Both deterministic

and randomized coding strategies have been studied. If coding is deterministic, the functions are required to be computed *without error*, i.e.,  $D_A = D_B = 0$ . If coding is randomized, with the sources of randomness independent of each other and  $\mathbf{X}$  and  $\mathbf{Y}$ , then  $\widehat{\mathbf{Z}}_A$  and  $\widehat{\mathbf{Z}}_B$  are random variables. In this case, computation could be required to be error-free and the termination time t random (the Las-Vegas framework) or the termination time t could be held fixed but large enough to keep the probability of computation error smaller than some desired value (the Monte-Carlo framework).

The coding-efficiency for function computation is called communication complexity. When coding is deterministic, communication complexity is measured in terms of the minimum value, over all codes, of the total number of bits that need to be exchanged between the two locations, to compute the functions without error, irrespective of the values of the sources. When coding is randomized, both the worst-case and the expected value of the total number of bits, over all sources of randomization, have been considered. The focus of much of the literature has been on establishing order-of-magnitude upper and lower bounds for the communication complexity and not on characterizing the set of all source coding rate tuples in bits per source sample. In fact, the ranges of  $\mathbf{f}_A$  and  $\mathbf{f}_B$  considered in the communication complexity literature are often orders of magnitude smaller than their domains. This would correspond to a vanishing source coding rate.

Recently, however, Giridhar and Kumar successfully applied the communication complexity framework to study how the rate of function computation can scale with the size of the network for deterministic sources [2], [3]. They considered a network where each node observes a (deterministic) sequence of source samples and a sink node where the sequence of function values needs to be computed. To study how the computation rate scales with the network size, they considered the class of connected random planar networks and the class of co-located networks and focused on the divisible and symmetric families of functions.

2) Interactive source reproduction: Kaspi [4] considered a distributed block source coding [5, Section 14.9] formulation of this problem for discrete memoryless stationary sources taking values in finite alphabets. However, the focus was on source reproduction with distortion and not function computation. The source reproduction quality was measured in terms of two single-letter distortion functions of the form  $d_A^{(n)}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \hat{\mathbf{z}}_A) := (1/n) \sum_{i=1}^n d_A(y(i), \hat{z}_A(i))$  and  $d_B^{(n)}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \hat{\mathbf{z}}_B) := (1/n) \sum_{i=1}^n d_B(x(i), \hat{z}_B(i))$ . Coupled single-letter distortion functions of the form  $d_A(x(i), y(i), \hat{z}_A(i))$  and  $d_B(x(i), y(i), \hat{z}_B(i))$ , and probability of block error for lossless reproduction, were not considered. For a fixed number of messages t, a single-letter characterization of the *sum-rate pair*  $(\sum_{j \text{ odd}} R_j, \sum_{j \text{ even}} R_j)$  (not the entire rate region) was derived. However, no examples were presented to illustrate the benefits of two-way source coding. The key question: "does two-way (interactive) distributed source coding with more messages require a strictly less sum-rate than with fewer messages?" was left unanswered.

The recent paper by Yang and He [6] studied two-terminal interactive source coding for the *lossless* reproduction of a stationary non-ergodic source X at B with decoder side-information Y. Here, the code termination criterion depended on the sources and previous messages so that t was a random variable. Two-way interactive coding was shown to be strictly better than one-way non-interactive coding.

3) Interactive function computation: In [7], Yamamoto studied the problem where  $(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y})$  is a doubly symmetric binary source,  $^2$  terminal B is required to compute a Boolean function of the sources satisfying an expected persample Hamming distortion criterion corresponding to  $d_B^{(n)}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \hat{\mathbf{z}}_B) := (1/n) \sum_{i=1}^n (f_B(x(i), y(i)) \oplus \hat{z}_B(i))$ , where  $f_B(x, y)$  is a Boolean function, only one message is allowed, i.e., t = 1, and nothing is required to be computed at terminal

 $<sup>^{2}(</sup>X(i), Y(i)) \sim \text{iid } p_{XY}(x, y) = 0.5(1 - p)\delta_{xy} + 0.5p(1 - \delta_{xy}), \text{ where } \delta_{ij} \text{ is the Kronecker delta, and } x, y \in \{0, 1\}. \text{ We say } (X, Y) \sim \text{DSBS}(p).$ 

A, i.e.,  $d_A^{(n)} = 0$ . This is equivalent to Wyner-Ziv source coding [5] with decoder side-information for a per-sample distortion function which depends on the decoder reconstruction and both the sources. Yamamoto computed the rate-distortion function for all the 16 Boolean functions of two binary variables and showed that they are of only three forms.

In [8], Han and Kobayashi studied a three-terminal problem where **X** and **Y** are discrete memoryless stationary sources taking values in finite alphabets, **X** is observed at terminal one and **Y** at terminal two and terminal three wishes to compute a samplewise function of the sources losslessly. Only terminals one and two can each send only one message to terminal three. Han and Kobayashi characterized the class of functions for which the rate region of this problem coincides with the Slepian-Wolf [5] rate region.

Orlitsky and Roche [9] studied a distributed block source coding problem whose setup coincides with Kaspi's problem [4] described above. However, the focus was on computing a samplewise function  $\mathbf{f}_B(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) = (f_B(X(i), Y(i)))_{i=1}^n$  of the two sources at terminal B using up to two messages  $(t \le 2)$ . Nothing was required to be computed at terminal A, i.e.,  $d_A^{(n)} = 0$ . Both probability of block error  $\mathbb{P}(\{\widehat{\mathbf{Z}}_B \ne \mathbf{f}_B(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y})\})$  and per-sample expected Hamming distortion  $(1/n) \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{P}(\widehat{Z}_B(i) \ne f_B(X(i), Y(i)))$  were considered. A single-letter characterization of the rate region was derived. Example 8 in [9] showed that the sum-rate with 2 messages is strictly smaller than with one message.

#### C. Contributions

We study the two-terminal interactive function computation problem described in Section I-A for discrete memoryless stationary sources taking values in finite alphabets. The goal is to compute samplewise functions at one or both locations and the two functions can be the same or different. We focus on a distributed block source coding formulation involving a probability of block error which is required to vanish as the blocklength tends to infinity. We derive a computable characterization of the the rate region and the minimum sum-rate for any finite number of messages in terms of single-letter information quantities (Theorem 1 and Corollary 1). We show how the rate-regions for different number of messages and different starting locations are nested (Proposition 1). We show how the Markov chain and conditional entropy constraints associated with the rate region are related to certain geometrical properties of the support-set of the joint distribution and the function-structure (Lemma 1). This relationship provides a link to the concept of monochromatic rectangles which has been studied in the communication complexity literature. We also consider a concurrent kind of interaction where messages are exchanged simultaneously and show how the minimum sum-rate is bounded by the sum-rate for alternating-message interaction (Proposition 2). We also consider per-sample average distortion criteria based on coupled single-letter distortion functions which involve the decoder output and both sources. For expected distortion as well as probability of excess distortion we discuss how the single-letter characterization of the rate-distortion region is related to the rate region for probability of block error (Section III-B).

Striking examples are presented to show how the benefit of interactive coding depends on the function-structure, computation at one/both locations, and the structure of the source distribution. Interactive coding is useless (in terms of the minimum sum-rate) if the goal is *lossless source reproduction* at one or both locations but the gains can be arbitrarily large for computing nontrivial functions involving both sources even when the sources are independent (Sections IV-A, IV-B, and IV-C). For certain classes of sources and functions, interactive coding is shown to have no advantage (Theorems 2 and 3). In fact, for doubly symmetric binary sources, interactive coding, with even an unbounded number of messages is useless for computing *any function* at one location (Section IV-D) but *is useful* if computation is desired at both locations (Section IV-E). For independent Bernoulli sources, when the Boolean

AND function is required to be computed at both locations, we develop an achievable *infinite-message* sum-rate with an infinitesimal rate for each message (Section IV-F). This sum-rate is expressed in analytic closed-form, in terms of two two-dimensional definite integrals, which represent the total rate flowing in each direction, and a rate-allocation curve which coordinates the progression of function computation.

We develop a general formulation of multiterminal interactive function computation in terms an interaction protocol which switches among many distributed source coding configurations (Section V). We show how results for the two-terminal problem can be used to develop insights into optimum topologies for information flow in larger networks through a linear program involving cut-set lower bounds (Sections V-B and V-C). We show that allowing any arbitrary number of interactive message exchanges over multiple rounds cannot reduce the minimum total rate for the Körner-Marton problem [10]. For networks with a star topology, however, we show that interaction can, in fact, decrease the scaling law of the total network rate by an order of magnitude as the network grows (Example 3 in Section V-C).

Notation: In this paper, the terms terminal, node, and location, are synonymous and are used interchangeably. The acronym 'iid' stands for independent and identically distributed and 'pmf' stands for probability mass function. Boldface letters such as,  $\mathbf{x}$ ,  $\mathbf{X}$ , etc., are used to denote vectors. Although the dimension of a vector is suppressed in this notation, it will be clear from the context. With the exception of the symbols R, D, N, L, A, and B, random quantities are denoted in upper case, e.g., X,  $\mathbf{X}$ , etc., and their specific instantiations are denoted in lower case, e.g.,  $X = \mathbf{x}$ ,  $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}$ , etc. When X denotes a random variable,  $X^n$  denotes the ordered tuple  $(X_1, \ldots, X_n)$  and  $X_m^n$  denotes the ordered tuple  $(X_m, \ldots, X_n)$ . However, for a set S,  $S^n$  denotes the n-fold Cartesian product  $S \times \ldots \times S$ . The symbol X(i-) denotes  $(X(1), \ldots, X(i-1))$  and X(i+) denotes  $(X(i+1), \ldots, X(n))$ . The indicator function of set S which is equal to one if  $x \in S$  and is zero otherwise, is denoted by  $1_S(x)$ . The support-set of a pmf p is the set over which it is strictly positive and is denoted by  $\sup(p)$ . Symbols  $\oplus$ ,  $\wedge$ , and  $\vee$  represent Boolean XOR, AND, and OR respectively.

## II. Two-terminal interactive function computation

#### A. Interactive distributed source code

We consider two statistically dependent discrete memoryless stationary sources taking values in finite alphabets. For  $i=1,\ldots,n$ , let  $(X(i),Y(i))\sim \operatorname{iid}\,p_{XY}(x,y), x\in\mathcal{X}, y\in\mathcal{Y}, |\mathcal{X}|<\infty, |\mathcal{Y}|<\infty$ . Here,  $p_{XY}$  is a joint pmf which describes the statistical dependencies among the samples observed at the two locations at each time instant i. Let  $f_A:\mathcal{X}\times\mathcal{Y}\to\mathcal{Z}_A$  and  $f_B:\mathcal{X}\times\mathcal{Y}\to\mathcal{Z}_B$  be functions of interest at locations A and B respectively, where  $\mathcal{Z}_A$  and  $\mathcal{Z}_B$  are finite alphabets. The desired outputs at locations A and B are  $\mathbf{Z}_A$  and  $\mathbf{Z}_B$  respectively, where for  $i=1,\ldots,n$ ,  $Z_A(i):=f_A(X(i),Y(i))$  and  $Z_B(i):=f_B(X(i),Y(i))$ .

Definition 1: A (two-terminal) interactive distributed source code (for function computation) with initial location A and parameters  $(t, n, |\mathcal{M}_1|, \dots, |\mathcal{M}_t|)$  is the tuple  $(e_1, \dots, e_t, g_A, g_B)$  of t block encoding functions  $e_1, \dots, e_t$  and

two block decoding functions  $g_A, g_B$ , of blocklength n, where for j = 1, ..., t

$$\begin{array}{ll} (\mathrm{Enc}.j) & e_j: & \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \mathcal{X}^n \times \bigotimes_{i=1}^{j-1} \mathcal{M}_i \to \mathcal{M}_j \;, & \mathrm{if} \; j \; \mathrm{is} \; \mathrm{odd} \\ \mathcal{Y}^n \times \bigotimes_{i=1}^{j-1} \mathcal{M}_i \to \mathcal{M}_j \;, & \mathrm{if} \; j \; \mathrm{is} \; \mathrm{even} \end{array} \right., \\ (\mathrm{Dec}.A) & g_A: & \mathcal{X}^n \times \bigotimes_{j=1}^t \mathcal{M}_j \to \mathcal{Z}_A^n, \\ (\mathrm{Dec}.B) & g_B: & \mathcal{Y}^n \times \bigotimes_{j=1}^t \mathcal{M}_j \to \mathcal{Z}_B^n. \end{array}$$

The output of  $e_j$ , denoted by  $M_j$ , is called the *j*-th message, and *t* is the number of messages. The outputs of  $g_A$  and  $g_B$  are denoted by  $\widehat{\mathbf{Z}}_A$  and  $\widehat{\mathbf{Z}}_B$  respectively. For each j,  $(1/n)\log_2 |\mathcal{M}_j|$  is called the *j*-th block-coding rate (in bits per sample).

Intuitively speaking, t coded messages,  $M_1, \ldots, M_t$ , are sent alternately from the two locations starting with location A. The message sent from a location can depend on the source samples at that location and on all the previous messages (which are available to both locations from previous message transfers). There is enough memory at both locations to store all the source samples and messages.

We consider two types of fidelity criteria for interactive function computation in this paper. These are 1) probability of block error and 2) per-sample distortion.

## B. Probability of block error and operational rate region

Of interest here are the probabilities of block error  $\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{Z}_A \neq \widehat{\mathbf{Z}}_A)$  and  $\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{Z}_B \neq \widehat{\mathbf{Z}}_B)$  which are multi-letter distortion functions. The performance of *t*-message interactive coding for function computation is measured as follows.

Definition 2: A rate tuple  $\mathbf{R} = (R_1, \dots, R_t)$  is admissible for t-message interactive function computation with initial location A if,  $\forall \epsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists N(\epsilon, t)$  such that  $\forall n > N(\epsilon, t)$ , there exists an interactive distributed source code with initial location A and parameters  $(t, n, |\mathcal{M}_1|, \dots, |\mathcal{M}_t|)$  satisfying

$$\frac{1}{n}\log_2|\mathcal{M}_j| \le R_j + \epsilon, \ j = 1, \dots, t,$$
$$\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{Z}_A \ne \widehat{\mathbf{Z}}_A) \le \epsilon, \ \mathbb{P}(\mathbf{Z}_B \ne \widehat{\mathbf{Z}}_B) \le \epsilon.$$

The set of all admissible rate tuples, denoted by  $\mathcal{R}_t^A$ , is called the operational rate region for t-message interactive function computation with initial location A. The rate region is closed and convex due to the way it has been defined. The minimum sum-rate  $R_{sum,t}^A$  is given by  $\min\left(\sum_{j=1}^t R_j\right)$  where the minimization is over  $\mathbf{R} \in \mathcal{R}_t^A$ . For initial location B, the rate region and the minimum sum-rate are denoted by  $\mathcal{R}_t^B$  and  $R_{sum,t}^B$  respectively.

# C. Per-sample distortion and operational rate-distortion region

Let  $d_A: \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y} \times \mathcal{Z}_A \to \mathbb{R}^+$  and  $d_B: \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y} \times \mathcal{Z}_B \to \mathbb{R}^+$  be bounded single-letter distortion functions. The fidelity of function computation can be measured by the per-sample average distortion

$$d_A^{(n)}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \hat{\mathbf{z}}_A) := \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n d_A(x(i), y(i), \hat{z}_A(i)).$$

$$d_B^{(n)}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \hat{\mathbf{z}}_B) := \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n d_B(x(i), y(i), \hat{z}_B(i)).$$

Of interest here are either the expected per-sample distortions  $E[d_A^{(n)}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}, \widehat{\mathbf{Z}}_A)]$  and  $E[d_B^{(n)}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}, \widehat{\mathbf{Z}}_B)]$  or the probabilities of excess distortion  $\mathbb{P}(d_A^{(n)}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}, \widehat{\mathbf{Z}}_A) > D_A)$  and  $\mathbb{P}(d_B^{(n)}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}, \widehat{\mathbf{Z}}_B) > D_B)$ . Note that although the desired

functions  $f_A$  and  $f_B$  do not explicitly appear in these fidelity criteria, they are subsumed by  $d_A$  and  $d_B$  because they accommodate general relationships between the sources and the outputs of the decoding functions. The performance of t-message interactive coding for function computation is measured as follows.

Definition 3: A rate-distortion tuple  $(\mathbf{R}, \mathbf{D}) = (R_1, \dots, R_t, D_A, D_B)$  is admissible for *t*-message interactive function computation with initial location A if,  $\forall \epsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists N(\epsilon, t)$  such that  $\forall n > N(\epsilon, t)$ , there exists an interactive distributed source code with initial location A and parameters  $(t, n, |\mathcal{M}_1|, \dots, |\mathcal{M}_t|)$  satisfying

$$\frac{1}{n}\log_2|\mathcal{M}_j| \le R_j + \epsilon, \quad j = 1, \dots, t, 
E[d_A^{(n)}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}, \widehat{\mathbf{Z}}_A)] \le D_A + \epsilon, \quad E[d_B^{(n)}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}, \widehat{\mathbf{Z}}_B)] \le D_B + \epsilon.$$

The set of all admissible rate-distortion tuples, denoted by  $\mathcal{RD}_t^A$ , is called the operational rate-distortion region for t-message interactive function computation with initial location A. The rate-distortion region is closed and convex due to the way it has been defined. The sum-rate-distortion function  $R_{sum,t}^A(\mathbf{D})$  is given by  $\min\left(\sum_{j=1}^t R_j\right)$  where the minimization is over all  $\mathbf{R}$  such that  $(\mathbf{R},\mathbf{D}) \in \mathcal{RD}_t^A$ . For initial location B, the rate-distortion region and the minimum sum-rate-distortion function are denoted by  $\mathcal{RD}_t^B$  and  $R_{sum,t}^B(\mathbf{D})$  respectively.

The admissibility of a rate-distortion tuple can also be defined in terms of the probability of excess distortion by replacing the expected distortion conditions in Definition 3 by the conditions  $\mathbb{P}(d_A^{(n)}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}, \widehat{\mathbf{Z}}_A) > D_A) \leq \epsilon$  and  $\mathbb{P}(d_B^{(n)}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}, \widehat{\mathbf{Z}}_B) > D_B) \leq \epsilon$ . Although these conditions appear to be more stringent<sup>3</sup>, it can be shown<sup>4</sup> that they lead to the same operational rate-distortion region. For simplicity, we focus on the expected distortion conditions as in Definition 3.

## D. Discussion

For a *t*-message interactive distributed source code, if  $|\mathcal{M}_t| = 1$ , then  $M_t = constant$  (null message) and nothing needs to be sent in the last step and the *t*-message code reduces to a (t-1)-message code. Thus the (t-1)-message rate region is contained within the *t*-message rate region. For generality and convenience,  $|\mathcal{M}_j| = 1$  is allowed for all  $j \le t$ . The following proposition summarizes some key properties of the rate regions which are needed in the sequel.

Proposition 1: (i) If  $(R_1, \ldots, R_{t-1}) \in \mathcal{R}^A_{t-1}$ , then  $(R_1, \ldots, R_{t-1}, 0) \in \mathcal{R}^A_t$ . Hence  $R^A_{sum,(t-1)} \ge R^A_{sum,t}$ . (ii) If  $(R_1, \ldots, R_{t-1}) \in \mathcal{R}^B_{t-1}$ , then  $(0, R_1, \ldots, R_{t-1}) \in \mathcal{R}^A_t$ . Hence  $R^B_{sum,(t-1)} \ge R^A_{sum,t}$ . Similarly,  $R^A_{sum,(t-1)} \ge R^B_{sum,t}$ . (iii)  $\lim_{t\to\infty} R^A_{sum,t} = \lim_{t\to\infty} R^B_{sum,t} = :R_{sum,\infty}$ .

*Proof:* (i) Any (t-1)-message code with initial location A can be regarded as a special case of a t-message code with initial location A by taking  $|\mathcal{M}_{t-1}| = 1$ . (ii) Any (t-1)-message code with initial location B can be regarded as a special case of a t-message code with initial location A by taking  $|\mathcal{M}_1| = 1$ . (iii) From (i),  $R_{sum,t}^A$  and  $R_{sum,t}^B$  are nonincreasing in t and bounded from below from zero, so the limits exist. From (ii),  $R_{sum,(t-1)}^A \ge R_{sum,(t+1)}^B$ , hence the limits are equal.

Proposition 1 is also true for any fixed distortion levels  $(D_A, D_B)$  if we replace rate regions and minimum sum-rates in the proposition by rate-distortion regions and sum-rate-distortion functions respectively.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>Any tuple which is admissible according to the probability of excess distortion criteria is also admissible according to the expected distortion criteria.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>Using strong-typicality arguments in the proof of the achievability part of the single-letter characterization of the rate-distortion region.

## E. Interaction with concurrent message exchanges

In contrast to the type of interaction described in Section II-A which involves alternating message transfers, one could also consider another type of interaction which involves concurrent messages exchanges. In this type of interaction, in the j-th round of interaction, two messages  $M_j^{AB}$  and  $M_j^{BA}$  are generated simultaneously by encoding functions  $e_j^{AB}$  (at location A) and  $e_j^{BA}$  (at location B) respectively. These messages are based on the source samples which are available at each location and on all the previous messages  $\{M_i^{AB}, M_i^{BA}\}_{i=1}^{j-1}$  which are available to both locations from previous rounds of interaction. Then  $M_j^{AB}$  and  $M_j^{BA}$  are exchanged. In t rounds, 2t messages are transferred. After t rounds of interaction, decoding functions  $g_A$  and  $g_B$  generate function estimates based on all the messages and the source samples which are available at locations A and B respectively. We can define the rate region and the rate-distortion region for concurrent interaction as in Sections II-B and II-C for alternating interaction. Let  $R_{sum,t}^{conc}$  denote the minimum sum-rate for t-round interactive function computation with concurrent message exchanges.

The following proposition shows how the minimum sum-rates for concurrent and alternating types of interaction bound each other. This is based on a purely structural comparison of alternating and concurrent modes of interaction.

Proposition 2: (i) 
$$R_{sum,t}^A \geq R_{sum,t}^{conc} \geq R_{sum,(t+1)}^A$$
. (ii)  $\lim_{t\to\infty} R_{sum,t}^{conc} = \lim_{t\to\infty} R_{sum,t}^A = R_{sum,\infty}$ .

*Proof:* (i) The first inequality holds because any *t*-message interactive code with alternating messages and initial location A can be regarded as a special case of a *t*-round interactive code with concurrent messages by taking  $|\mathcal{M}_{i}^{AB}| = 1$  for all even j and  $|\mathcal{M}_{i}^{BA}| = 1$  for all odd j.

The second inequality can be proved as follows. Given any t-round interactive code with concurrent messages and encoding functions  $\{e_j^{AB}, e_j^{BA}\}_{j=1}^t$ , one can construct a (t+1)-message interactive code with alternating messages as follows: (1) Set  $e_1 := e_1^{AB}$ . (2) For j = 2, ..., t, if j is even, define  $e_j$  as the combination of  $e_{j-1}^{BA}$  and  $e_j^{BA}$ , otherwise, define  $e_j$  as the combination of  $e_{j-1}^{AB}$  and  $e_j^{AB}$ . (3) If t is even, set  $e_{t+1} := e_t^{AB}$ , otherwise set  $e_{t+1} := e_t^{BA}$ . It can be verified by induction that the inputs of  $\{e_1, ..., e_{t+1}\}$  defined in this way are indeed available when these encoding functions are used. Hence these are valid encoding functions for interactive coding with alternating messages. This (t+1)-message interactive code with alternating messages has the same sum-rate as the original t-round interactive code with concurrent messages. Therefore we have  $R_{sum,(t+1)}^A \le R_{sum,t}^{conc}$ .

## (ii) This follows from (i).

Although a t-round interactive code with concurrent messages uses 2t messages, the sum-rate performance is bounded by that of an alternating-message code with only (t+1) messages. When t is large, the benefit of concurrent interaction over alternating interaction disappears. Due to this reason and because for two-terminal function computation it is easier to describe results for alternating interaction, in Sections III and IV our discussion will be confined to alternating interaction. For multiterminal function computation, however, the framework of concurrent interaction becomes more convenient. Hence in Section V we consider multiterminal function computation problems with concurrent interaction.

#### III. RATE REGION

## A. Probability of block error

When the probability of block error is used to measure the quality of function computation, the rate region for *t*-message interactive distributed source coding with alternating messages can be characterized in terms of single-letter mutual information quantities involving auxiliary random variables satisfying conditional entropy constraints and Markov chain constraints. This characterization is provided by Theorem 1.

Theorem 1:

$$\mathcal{R}_{t}^{A} = \{ \mathbf{R} \mid \exists U^{t}, s.t. \ \forall i = 1, \dots, t, \\
R_{i} \geq \begin{cases} I(X; U_{i} \mid Y, U^{i-1}), \ U_{i} - (X, U^{i-1}) - Y, & i \text{ odd} \\
I(Y; U_{i} \mid X, U^{i-1}), \ U_{i} - (Y, U^{i-1}) - X, & i \text{ even} \end{cases}$$

$$H(f_{A}(X, Y) \mid X, U^{t}) = 0, \ H(f_{B}(X, Y) \mid Y, U^{t}) = 0 \}, \tag{3.1}$$

where  $U^t$  are auxiliary random variables taking values in alphabets with the cardinalities bounded as follows,

$$|\mathcal{U}_j| \leq \begin{cases} |\mathcal{X}| \left(\prod_{i=1}^{j-1} |\mathcal{U}_i|\right) + t - j + 3, \quad j \text{ odd,} \\ |\mathcal{Y}| \left(\prod_{i=1}^{j-1} |\mathcal{U}_i|\right) + t - j + 3, \quad j \text{ even.} \end{cases}$$
 It should be noted that the right side of (3.1) is convex and closed. This is because  $\mathcal{R}_t^A$  is convex and closed and

It should be noted that the right side of (3.1) is convex and closed. This is because  $\mathcal{R}_t^A$  is convex and closed and Theorem 1 shows that the right side of (3.1) is the same as  $\mathcal{R}_t^A$ . In fact the convexity and closedness of the right side of (3.1) can be shown directly without appealing to Theorem 1 and the properties of  $\mathcal{R}_t^A$ . This is explained at the end of Appendix I.

The proof of achievability follows from standard random coding and random binning arguments as in the source coding with side information problem studied by Wyner, Ziv, Gray, Ahlswede, and Körner [5] (also see Kaspi [4]). We only develop the intuition and informally sketch the steps leading to the proof of achievability. The key idea is to use a sequence of "Wyner-Ziv-like" codes. First, Enc.1 quantizes  $\mathbf{X}$  to  $\mathbf{U}_1 \in (\mathcal{U}_1)^n$  using a random codebook-1. The codewords are further randomly distributed into bins and the bin index of  $U_1$  is sent to location B. Enc.2 identifies  $U_1$  from the bin with the help of Y as decoder side-information. Next, Enc.2 jointly quantizes  $(\mathbf{Y}, \mathbf{U}_1)$  to  $\mathbf{U}_2 \in (\mathcal{U}_2)^n$  using a random codebook-2. The codewords are randomly binned and the bin index of  $U_2$  is sent to location A. Enc.3 identifies  $U_2$  from the bin with the help of  $(X, U_1)$  as decoder side-information. Generally, for the j-th message, j odd, Enc. j jointly quantizes  $(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{U}^{j-1})$  to  $\mathbf{U}_i \in (\mathcal{U}_i)^n$  using a random codebook-j. The codewords are randomly binned and the bin index of  $U_i$  is sent to location B. Enc. (j+1) identifies  $U_i$  from the bin with the help of  $(\mathbf{Y}, \mathbf{U}^{j-1})$  as decoder side information. If j is even, interchange the roles of locations A and B and sources X and Y in the procedure for an odd j. Note that  $H(f_A(X,Y)|X,U^t)=0$  implies the existence of a deterministic function  $\phi_A$  such that  $\phi_A(X, U^t) = f_A(X, Y)$ . At the end of t messages, Dec. A produces  $\widehat{\mathbf{Z}}_A$  by  $\widehat{Z}_A(i) = \phi_A(X(i), U^t(i)), \forall i = 1, ..., n$ . Similarly, Dec.B produces  $\widehat{\mathbf{Z}}_B$ . The rate and Markov chain constraints ensure that all quantized codewords are jointly strongly typical with the sources and are recovered with a probability which tends to one as  $n \to \infty$ . The conditional entropy constraints ensure that the corresponding block error probabilities for function computation go to zero as the blocklength tends to infinity.

The (weak) converse is proved in Appendix I following [4] using standard information inequalities, suitably defining auxiliary random variables, and using convexification (time-sharing) arguments. The conditional entropy constraints are established using Fano's inequality as in [8, Lemma 1]. The proof of cardinality bounds for the alphabets of the auxiliary random variables is also sketched.

Corollary 1: For all t,

(i) 
$$R_{sum,t}^A = \min_{I^{t}} [I(X; U^t | Y) + I(Y; U^t | X)],$$
 (3.3)

(ii) 
$$R_{sum.t}^{A} \ge H(f_B(X, Y)|Y) + H(f_A(X, Y)|X),$$
 (3.4)

where in (i)  $U^t$  are subject to all the Markov chain and conditional entropy constraints in (3.1) and the cardinality bounds given by (3.2).

*Proof:* For (i), add all the rate inequalities in (3.1) enforcing all the constraints. Inequality (ii) can be proved either using (3.3) and relaxing the Markov chains constraints, or using the following cut-set bound argument. If **Y** is also available at location A, then  $\mathbf{Z}_B = f_B(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y})$  can be computed at location A. Hence by the converse part of the Slepian-Wolf theorem [5], the sum-rate of all messages from A to B must be at least  $H(f_B(X, Y)|Y)$  for B to form  $\mathbf{Z}_B$ . Similarly, the sum-rate of all messages from B to A must be at least  $H(f_A(X, Y)|X)$ .

Although (3.1) and (3.3) provide computable single-letter characterizations of  $\mathcal{R}_t^A$  and  $\mathcal{R}_{sum,t}^A$  respectively for all finite t, they do not provide a characterization for  $\mathcal{R}_{sum,\infty}$  in terms of computable single-letter information quantities. This is because the cardinality bounds for the alphabets of the auxiliary random variable  $U^t$ , given by (3.2), grow with t.

The Markov chain and conditional entropy constraints of (3.1) imply certain structural properties which the support-set of the joint distribution of the source and auxiliary random variables need to satisfy. These properties are formalized below in Lemma 1. This lemma provides a bridge between certain concepts which have played a key role in the communication complexity literature [1] and distributed source coding theory. In order to state the lemma, we need to introduce some terminology used in the communication complexity literature [1]. This is adapted to our framework and notation. A subset  $\mathcal{A} \subseteq X \times \mathcal{Y}$  is called f-monochromatic if the function f is constant on  $\mathcal{A}$ . A subset  $\mathcal{A} \subseteq X \times \mathcal{Y}$  is called a *rectangle* if  $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{S}_X \times \mathcal{S}_Y$  for some  $\mathcal{S}_X \subseteq X$  and some  $\mathcal{S}_Y \subseteq \mathcal{Y}$ . Subsets of the form  $\{x\} \times \mathcal{S}_Y$ ,  $x \in \mathcal{S}_X$ , are called rows and subsets of the form  $\mathcal{S}_X \times \{y\}$ ,  $y \in \mathcal{S}_Y$ , are called columns the rectangle  $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{S}_X \times \mathcal{S}_Y$ . By definition, the empty set is simultaneously a rectangle, a row, and a column. If each row of a rectangle  $\mathcal{A}$  is f-monochromatic, then  $\mathcal{A}$  is said to be row-wise f-monochromatic. Similarly, if each column of a rectangle  $\mathcal{A}$  is f-monochromatic, then  $\mathcal{A}$  is said to be column-wise f-monochromatic. Clearly, if  $\mathcal{A}$  is both row-wise and column-wise f-monochromatic, then it is an f-monochromatic subset of  $X \times \mathcal{Y}$ .

Lemma 1: Let  $U^t$  be any set of auxiliary random variables satisfying the Markov chain and conditional entropy constraints of (3.1). Let  $\mathcal{A}(u^t) := \{(x,y)|p_{XYU^t}(x,y,u^t)>0\}$  denote the projection of the  $u^t$ -slice of  $\mathrm{supp}(p_{XYU^t})$  onto  $X\times \mathcal{Y}$ . If  $\mathrm{supp}(p_{XY})=X\times \mathcal{Y}$ , then for all  $u^t$ , the following four conditions hold. (i)  $\mathcal{A}(u^t)$  is a rectangle. (ii)  $\mathcal{A}(u^t)$  is row-wise  $f_A$ -monochromatic. (iii)  $\mathcal{A}(u^t)$  is column-wise  $f_B$ -monochromatic. (iv) If in addition,  $f_A=f_B=f$ , then  $\mathcal{A}(u^t)$  is f-monochromatic.

*Proof:* (i) The Markov chains in (3.1) induce the following factorization of the joint pmf.

$$p_{XYU^{t}}(x, y, u^{t}) = p_{XY}(x, y) \cdot p_{U_{1}|X}(u_{1}|x) \cdot p_{U_{2}|YU_{1}}(u_{2}|y, u_{1}) \cdot$$

$$p_{U_{3}|XU^{2}}(u_{3}|x, u^{2}) \dots$$

$$=: p_{XY}(x, y)\phi_{X}(x, u^{t})\phi_{Y}(y, u^{t}),$$

where  $\phi_X$  is the product of all the factors having conditioning on x and  $\phi_Y$  is the product of all the factors having conditioning on y. Let  $S_X(u^t) := \{x \mid \phi_X(x, u^t) > 0\}$  and  $S_Y(u^t) := \{y \mid \phi_Y(y, u^t) > 0\}$ . Since  $p_{XY}(x, y) > 0$  for all x and y,  $\mathcal{A}(u^t) = S_X(u^t) \times S_Y(u^t)$ . (ii) This follows from the conditional entropy constraint  $H(f_A(X, Y)|X, U^t) = 0$  in (3.1). (iii) This follows from the conditional entropy constraint  $H(f_B(X, Y)|Y, U^t) = 0$  in (3.1). (iv) This follows from parts (ii) and (iii) of this lemma.

Note that  $\mathcal{A}(u^t)$  is the empty set if, and only if,  $p_{U^t}(u^t) = 0$ . The above lemma holds for all values of t. The fact that the set  $\mathcal{A}(u^t)$  has a rectangular shape is a consequence of the fact that the auxiliary random variables  $U^t$  need to satisfy the Markov chain constraints in (3.1). These Markov chain constraints are in turn consequences of the structural constraints which are inherent to the coding process – messages alternate from one terminal to the other and can depend on only the source samples and all the previously received messages which are available at

a terminal. The rectangular property depends "less directly" on the function-structure than on the structure of the coding process and the structure of the joint source distribution. On the other hand, the fact that  $\mathcal{A}(u^t)$  is row-wise or/and column-wise monochromatic is a consequence of the fact that the auxiliary random variables  $U^t$  need to satisfy the conditional entropy constraints in (3.1). This property is more closely tied to the structure of the function and the structure of the joint distribution of sources. Lemma 1 will be used to prove Theorems 2 and Theorem 4 in the sequel.

## B. Rate-distortion region

When per-sample distortion criteria are used, the single-letter characterization of the rate-distortion region is given by Theorem 1 with the conditional entropy constraints in (3.1) replaced by the following expected distortion constraints: there exist deterministic functions  $\hat{g}_A$  and  $\hat{g}_B$ , such that  $E\left[d_A(X,Y,\hat{g}_A(X,U^t))\right] \leq D_A$  and  $E\left[d_B(X,Y,\hat{g}_B(Y,U^t))\right] \leq D_B$ . The proof of achievability is similar to that of Theorem 1. The distortion constraints get satisfied "automatically" by using strongly typical sets in the random coding and binning arguments. The proof of the converse given in Appendix I will continue to hold if equations (I.4) and (I.5) are replaced by  $E[d_A^{(n)}(\mathbf{X},\mathbf{Y},\widehat{\mathbf{Z}}_A)] \leq D_A + \epsilon$  and  $E[d_B^{(n)}(\mathbf{X},\mathbf{Y},\widehat{\mathbf{Z}}_B)] \leq D_B + \epsilon$  respectively and the subsequent steps in the proof changed appropriately.

The following proposition clarifies the relationship between the rate region for probability of block error and the rate-distortion region.

Proposition 3: Let  $d_H$  denote the Hamming distortion function. If  $d_A(x, y, \hat{z}_A) = d_H(f_A(x, y), \hat{z}_A)$ ,  $d_B(x, y, \hat{z}_B) = d_H(f_B(x, y), \hat{z}_B)$ , and  $D_A = D_B = 0$ , then  $\{\mathbf{R} \mid (\mathbf{R}, 0, 0) \in \mathcal{RD}_t^A\} = \mathcal{R}_t^A$ .

*Proof:* In order to show that  $\{\mathbf{R} \mid (\mathbf{R}, 0, 0) \in \mathcal{RD}_t^A\} \supseteq \mathcal{R}_t^A$ , note that  $\forall \mathbf{R} \in \mathcal{R}_t^A$ , we have  $\epsilon \ge \mathbb{P}(\mathbf{Z}_A \ne \widehat{\mathbf{Z}}_A) \ge E[d_A^{(n)}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}, \widehat{\mathbf{Z}}_A)]$  and  $\epsilon \ge \mathbb{P}(\mathbf{Z}_B \ne \widehat{\mathbf{Z}}_B) \ge E[d_B^{(n)}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}, \widehat{\mathbf{Z}}_B)]$  for the distortion function assumed in the statement of the proposition. Therefore  $(\mathbf{R}, 0, 0) \in \mathcal{RD}_t^A$ .

In order to show that  $\{\mathbf{R} \mid (\mathbf{R}, 0, 0) \in \mathcal{RD}_t^A\} \subseteq \mathcal{R}_t^A$ , note that  $\forall \mathbf{R}$  such that  $(\mathbf{R}, 0, 0) \in \mathcal{RD}_t^A$ , we have  $d_A(X, Y, \hat{g}_A(X, U^t)) = d_H(f_A(X, Y), \hat{g}_A(X, U^t)) = 0$ , which implies  $f_A(X, Y) = \hat{g}_A(X, U^t)$ , which in turn implies  $H(f_A(X, Y)|X, U^t) = 0$ . Similarly, we have  $H(f_B(X, Y)|X, U^t) = 0$ . Therefore  $\mathbf{R} \in \mathcal{R}_t^A$ .

Although the proof of the single-letter characterization of  $\mathcal{RD}_t^A$  implies the proof of Theorem 1 for  $\mathcal{R}_t^A$ , since the focus of this paper is on probability of block error and the proofs for  $\mathcal{RD}_t^A$  are very similar, we provide the detailed converse proof only for Theorem 1 for  $\mathcal{R}_t^A$ .

#### IV. Examples

Does interaction really help? In other words, does interactive coding with more messages *strictly* outperform coding with less messages in terms of the sum-rate? When only one nontrivial function has to be computed at only one location, at least one message is needed. In this situation, interaction will be considered to be "useful" if there exists t > 1 such that  $R_{sum,t}^A < R_{sum,1}^A$ . When nontrivial functions have to be computed at both locations, at least two messages are needed, one going from A to B and the other from B to A. Since messages go in both directions, a two-message code can be potentially considered to be interactive. However, this is a trivial form of interaction because function computation is impossible without two messages. Therefore, in this situation, interaction will be considered to be useful if there exists t > 2 such that  $R_{sum,t}^A < R_{sum,2}^A$ . Corollary 1 does not directly tell us if or when interaction is useful. In this section we explore the value of interaction in different scenarios through some striking

examples. Interaction does help in examples IV-C, IV-E and IV-F, and does not (even with infinite messages) in examples IV-A, IV-B and IV-D.

A. Interaction is useless for reproducing one source at one location:  $f_A(x,y) := 0$ ,  $f_B(x,y) := x$ .

Only **X** needs to be reproduced at location *B*. Unless H(X|Y) = 0, at least one message is necessary. From (3.4),  $\forall t \geq 1$ ,  $R_{sum,t}^A \geq H(X|Y)$ . But  $R_{sum,1}^A = H(X|Y)$  by Slepian-Wolf coding [5] with **X** as source and **Y** as decoder side information. Hence, by Proposition 1(i),  $R_{sum,t}^A = R_{sum,1}^A = H(X|Y)$  for all  $t \geq 1$ .

B. Interaction is useless for reproducing both sources at both locations:  $f_A(x,y) := y$ ,  $f_B(x,y) := x$ .

Unless H(X|Y) = 0 or H(Y|X) = 0, at least two messages are necessary. From (3.4),  $\forall t \geq 2$ ,  $R_{sum,t}^A \geq H(X|Y) + H(Y|X)$ . But  $R_{sum,2}^A = H(X|Y) + H(Y|X)$  by Slepian-Wolf coding, first with **X** as source and **Y** as decoder side information and then vice-versa. Hence, by Proposition 1(i),  $R_{sum,t}^A = R_{sum,2}^A = H(X|Y) + H(Y|X)$  for all  $t \geq 2$ .

Examples IV-A and IV-B show that if the goal is source reproduction with vanishing distortion, interaction is useless<sup>5</sup>. To discover the value of interaction, we must study either nonzero distortions or functions which involve both sources. Our focus is on the latter.

C. Benefit of interaction can be arbitrarily large for function computation:  $X \perp \!\!\! \perp Y, X \sim Uniform\{1, ..., L\}, p_Y(1) = 1 - p_Y(0) = p \in (0, 1), f_A(x, y) := 0, f_B(x, y) := xy$  (real multiplication).

This is an expanded version of Example 8 in [9]. At least one message is necessary. If t = 1, an achievable scheme is to send X by Slepian-Wolf coding at the rate  $H(X|Y) = \log_2 L$  so that the function can be computed at location B. Although location B is required to compute only the samplewise product and is not required to reproduce A, it turns out, rather surprisingly, that the one-message rate B0 cannot be decreased. This is a direct consequence of a lemma due to Han and Kobayashi which we now state by adapting it to our situation and notation.

Lemma 2: (Han and Kobayashi [8, Lemma 1]) Let  $\operatorname{supp}(p_{XY}) = X \times \mathcal{Y}$ . If  $\forall x_1, x_2 \in \mathcal{X}, x_1 \neq x_2$ , there exists  $y_0 \in \mathcal{Y}$  such that  $f_B(x_1, y_0) \neq f_B(x_2, y_0)$ , then  $R^A_{sum, 1} \geq H(X|Y)$ .

The condition of Lemma 2 is satisfied in our present example with  $y_0 = 1$ . Therefore we have  $R_{sum,1}^A = H(X|Y) = \log_2 L$ . With one extra message and initial location B, however, Y can be reproduced at location A by entropy-coding at the rate  $R_1 = H(Y) = h_2(p)$  bits per sample. Then,  $Z_B$  can be computed at location A and conveyed to location B via Slepian-Wolf coding at the rate  $R_2 = H(f_B(X,Y)|Y) = p\log_2 L$  bits per sample, where  $h_2$  is the binary entropy function. Therefore,  $R_{sum,2}^B \le h_2(p) + p\log_2 L$ . The benefit of even one extra message can be significant: For fixed L,  $(R_{sum,1}^A/R_{sum,2}^B)$  can be made arbitrarily large for suitably small p. For fixed p,  $(R_{sum,1}^A - R_{sum,2}^B)$  can be made arbitrarily large for suitably large L.

Extrapolating from this example, one might be led to believe that the benefit of interaction arises due to computing nontrivial functions which involve both sources as opposed to reproducing the sources themselves. In other words, the function-structure determines whether interaction is beneficial or not (recall that the sources were independent in this example). However, the structure of the joint distribution plays an equally important role and this aspect will be highlighted in the next example.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup>However, interaction can prove useful for source reproduction when it is either required to be error-free [11], [12] or when the sources are stationary but non-ergodic [6]

D. Interaction can be useless for computing any function at one location:  $Y = X \oplus W$ ,  $X \perp W$ ,  $X \sim Ber(q)$ ,  $W \sim Ber(p)$ ,  $f_A(x,y) := 0$ ,  $f_B(x,y) := any$  function.

If  $f_B(x, y)$  does not depend on x, i.e., there exists a function f' such that  $f_B(x, y) = f'(y)$ , no communication is needed and interaction does not help.

If  $f_B(x, y)$  depends on x, then  $\exists y_0 \in \{0, 1\}$  such that  $f_B(0, y_0) \neq f_B(1, y_0)$ . Theorem 2 below, proved in Appendix II, shows that interaction does not help even with infinite messages.

Theorem 2: Let  $f_A(x, y) = 0$  and let  $Y = X \oplus W$ , with  $X \perp \!\!\! \perp W$ ,  $X \sim Ber(q)$ , and  $W \sim Ber(p)$ . If there exists a  $y_0 \in \{0, 1\}$  such that  $f_B(0, y_0) \neq f_B(1, y_0)$ , then for all  $t \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ ,  $R^A_{sum,t} = H(X|Y)$ .

*Remark:* The conclusion of Theorem 2 that interaction does not help *cannot* be directly deduced from (3.4): When  $f_B(x,y) = x \wedge y$  (Boolean AND), the lower bound in Corollary 1(ii)  $H(X \wedge Y|Y) = H(X|Y=1)p_Y(1)$  is strictly less than H(X|Y) if 0 < p, q < 1.

The result of Theorem 2 can be generalized to the following theorem for non-binary sources. The proof of this theorem is provided in Appendix II immediately after the proof of Theorem 2.

Theorem 3: Let  $f_A(x, y) = 0$  and let  $\operatorname{supp}(p_{XY}) = X \times \mathcal{Y}$ . If (i) the only column-wise  $f_B$ -monochromatic rectangles of  $X \times \mathcal{Y}$  are subsets of rows and columns and (ii) there exists a random variable W and deterministic functions  $\psi$  and  $\eta$  such that  $Y = \psi(X, W)$ ,  $X = \eta(Y, W)$ , and H(Y|X) = H(W), then for all  $t \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ ,  $R_{sum,t}^A = H(X|Y)$ .

The examples till this point have highlighted the effects of function-structure and distribution-structure on the benefit of interaction. The next example will highlight a slightly different aspect of function-structure associated with the situation in which both sides need to compute the same nontrivial function which involves both sources. The distribution-structure in the next example will be essentially the same as in Example IV-D but with q = 1/2 and  $0 , i.e., <math>(X, Y) \sim \text{DSBS}(p)$ . However, both locations will need to compute the samplewise Boolean AND function. Interestingly, in this situation the benefit of interaction returns as explained below.

E. Interaction can be useful for computing a function of sources at both locations:  $(X, Y) \sim DSBS(p)$ ,  $p \in (0, 1)$ ,  $f_A(x, y) = f_B(x, y) := x \wedge y$ .

Since both locations need to compute nontrivial functions, at least two messages are needed. In a 2-message code with initial location A, location B should be able to produce  $\mathbf{Z}_B$  after receiving the first message. By Lemma 2,  $R_1 \ge H(X|Y) = h_2(p)$ . With  $R_1 = h_2(p)$  and a Slepian-Wolf code with  $\mathbf{Y}$  as side-information,  $\mathbf{X}$  can be reproduced at location B. Thus for the second message,  $R_2 = H(f_B(X, Y)|X) = (1/2)h_2(p)$  is both necessary and sufficient to ensure that location A can produce  $\mathbf{Z}_A$ . Hence  $R_{sum}^A = (3/2)h_2(p)$ .

If a third message is allowed, one choice of auxiliary random variables in (3.1) is  $U_1 := X \lor W$ ,  $W \sim Ber(1/2)$ ,  $W \coprod (X,Y)$ ,  $U_2 := Y \land U_1$ , and  $U_3 := X \land U_2$ . Hence  $U_3 = X \land Y = f_B(X,Y) \Rightarrow H(f_A(X,Y)|X,U^3) = H(f_B(X,Y)|Y,U^3) = 0$ . Hence,  $R_{sum,3}^A \le I(X;U^3|Y) + I(Y;U^3|X) = \frac{5}{4}h_2(p) + \frac{1}{2}h_2\left(\frac{1-p}{2}\right) - \frac{(1-p)}{2} \stackrel{(a)}{\le} \frac{3}{2}h_2(p) = R_{sum,2}^A$ , where step (a) holds for all  $p \in (0,1)$  and the gap is maximum for p=1/3. When p=0.5,  $X \coprod Y$ , and an achievable 3-message sum-rate is  $\approx 1.406 < 1.5 = R_{sum,2}^A$ .

Note that as a special case of Example IV-D, if  $(X, Y) \sim DSBS(p)$  and only location B needs to compute the Boolean AND function, interaction is useless. But if both locations need to compute it, and  $p \in (0, 1)$ , then the benefit of interaction returns. Motivated by the benefits of using the more and more messages, we investigate infinite-message interaction in the following example.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup>It is easy to see that if  $Y = \psi(X, W)$ , then  $H(Y|X) = H(W) \Leftrightarrow X \perp \!\!\! \perp W$  and H(W|X, Y) = 0.

F. An achievable infinite-message sum-rate as a definite integral with infinitesimal-rate messages:  $X \perp \!\!\! \perp Y, X \sim Ber(p), Y \sim Ber(q), p, q \in (0, 1), f_A(x, y) = f_B(x, y) = x \wedge y.$ 

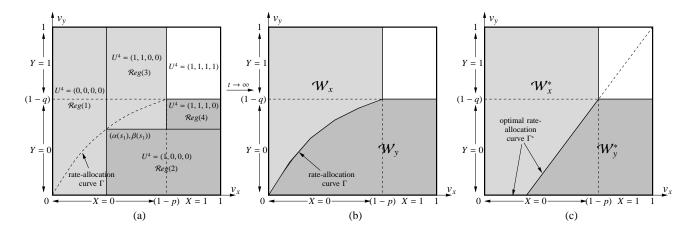


Fig. 2. (a) 4-message interactive code (b)  $\infty$ -message interactive code (c)  $\infty$ -message interactive code with optimal rate-allocation curve when  $q \ge p$ .

As in Example IV-E, the 2-message minimum sum-rate is  $R_{sum,2}^A = H(X|Y) + H(f_B(X,Y)|X) = h_2(p) + ph_2(q)$ . Example IV-E demonstrates the gain of interaction. This inspires us to generalize the 3-message code of Example IV-E to an arbitrary number of messages and evaluate an achievable infinite-message sum-rate. Since we are interested in the limit  $t \to \infty$ , it is sufficient to consider even-valued t due to Proposition 1.

Define real auxiliary random variables  $(V_x, V_y) \sim \text{Uniform}([0, 1]^2)$ . If  $X := 1_{[1-p,1]}(V_x)$  and  $Y := 1_{[1-q,1]}(V_y)$ , then (X, Y) has the correct joint pmf, i.e.,  $p_X(1) = 1 - p_X(0) = p$ ,  $p_Y(1) = 1 - p_Y(0) = q$  and  $X \perp \!\!\!\perp Y$ . We will interpret 0 and 1 as real zero and real one respectively as needed. This interpretation will allow us to express Boolean arithmetic in terms of real arithmetic. Thus  $X \wedge Y$  (Boolean AND) = XY (real multiplication). Define a rate-allocation curve  $\Gamma$  parametrically by  $\Gamma := \{(\alpha(s), \beta(s)), 0 \leq s \leq 1\}$  where  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are real, nondecreasing, absolutely continuous functions with  $\alpha(0) = \beta(0) = 0$ ,  $\alpha(1) = (1-p)$ , and  $\beta(1) = (1-q)$ . The significance of  $\Gamma$  will become clear later. Now choose a partition of [0, 1],  $0 = s_0 < s_1 < \ldots < s_{t/2-1} < s_{t/2} = 1$ , such that  $\max_{i=1,\ldots,t/2}(s_i - s_{i-1}) < \Delta_t$ . For  $i = 1, \ldots, t/2$ , define t auxiliary random variables as follows,

$$U_{2i-1} := 1_{[\alpha(s_i),1] \times [\beta(s_{i-1}),1]}(V_x, V_y), \ U_{2i} := 1_{[\alpha(s_i),1] \times [\beta(s_i),1]}(V_x, V_y).$$

In Figure 2(a),  $(V_x, V_y)$  is uniformly distributed on the unit square and  $U^t$  are defined to be 1 in rectangular regions which are nested. The following properties can be verified:

 $P1: \ U_1 \geq U_2 \geq \ldots \geq U_t.$ 

P2:  $H(X \wedge Y|X, U^t) = H(X \wedge Y|Y, U^t) = 0$ : since  $U_t = 1_{[1-p,1] \times [1-q,1]}(V_x, V_y) = X \wedge Y$ .

P3:  $U^t$  satisfy all the Markov chain constraints in (3.1): for example, consider  $U_{2i} - (Y, U^{2i-1}) - X$ .  $U_{2i-1} = 0 \Rightarrow U_{2i} = 0$  and the Markov chain holds.  $U_{2i-1} = Y = 1 \Rightarrow (V_x, V_y) \in [\alpha(s_i), 1] \times [1 - q, 1] \Rightarrow U_{2i} = 1$  and the Markov chain holds. Given  $U_{2i-1} = 1, Y = 0, (V_x, V_y) \sim \text{Uniform}([\alpha(s_i), 1] \times [\beta(s_{i-1}), 1 - q]) \Rightarrow V_x$  and  $V_y$  are conditionally independent. Thus  $X \perp U_{2i}|(U_{2i-1} = 1, Y = 0)$  because X is a function of only  $V_x$  and  $U_{2i}$  is a function of only  $V_y$  upon conditioning. So the Markov chain  $U_{2i} - (Y, U^{2i-1}) - X$  holds in all situations.

P4:  $(Y, U_{2i}) \perp X | U_{2i-1} = 1$ : this can be proved by the same method as in P3.

P2 and P3 show that  $U^t$  satisfy all the constraints in (3.1).

For i = 1, ..., t/2, the (2*i*)-th rate is given by

$$\begin{split} I(Y;U_{2i}|X,U^{2i-1}) &= \\ \stackrel{P1}{=} & I(Y;U_{2i}|X,U_{2i-1}=1)p_{U_{2i-1}}(1) \\ \stackrel{P4}{=} & I(Y;U_{2i}|U_{2i-1}=1)p_{U_{2i-1}}(1) \\ &= & H(Y|U_{2i-1}=1)p_{U_{2i-1}}(1) - H(Y|U_{2i},U_{2i-1}=1)p_{U_{2i-1}}(1) \\ \stackrel{(b)}{=} & H(Y|U_{2i-1}=1)p_{U_{2i-1}}(1) - H(Y|U_{2i}=1)p_{U_{2i}}(1) \\ &= & (1-\alpha(s_i))\left((1-\beta(s_{i-1}))h_2\left(\frac{q}{1-\beta(s_{i-1})}\right) - (1-\beta(s_i))h_2\left(\frac{q}{1-\beta(s_i)}\right)\right) \\ \stackrel{(c)}{=} & (1-\alpha(s_i))\int_{\beta(s_{i-1})}^{\beta(s_i)}\log_2\left(\frac{1-v_y}{1-q-v_y}\right)dv_y \\ &= \iint_{[\alpha(s_i),1]\times[\beta(s_{i-1}),\beta(s_i)]} w_y(v_y,q)dv_xdv_y, \end{split}$$

where step (b) is due to property P4 and because  $(U_{2i-1}, U_{2i}) = (1, 0) \Rightarrow Y = 0$ , hence  $H(Y|U_{2i}, U_{2i-1} = 1)p_{U_{2i-1}}(1) = H(Y|U_{2i} = 1, U_{2i-1} = 1)p_{U_{2i}, U_{2i-1}}(1, 1) \stackrel{P1}{=} H(Y|U_{2i} = 1)p_{U_{2i}}(1)$ , and step (c) is because

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial v_y} \left( -(1 - v_y) h_2 \left( \frac{q}{1 - v_y} \right) \right) = \log_2 \left( \frac{1 - v_y}{1 - q - v_y} \right) =: w_y(v_y, q).$$

The 2i-th rate can thus be expressed as a 2-D integral of a weight function  $w_y$  over the rectangular region  $\Re(2i) := [\alpha(s_i), 1] \times [\beta(s_{i-1}), \beta(s_i)]$  (a horizontal bar in Figure 2(a)). Therefore, the sum of rates of all messages sent from location B to location A is the integral of  $w_y$  over the union of all the corresponding horizontal bars in Figure 2(a). Similarly, the sum of rates of all messages sent from location A to location B can be expressed as the integral of another weight function  $w_x(v_x, p) := \log_2((1 - v_x)/(1 - p - v_x))$  over the union of all the vertical bars in Figure 2(a). Now let  $t \to \infty$  such that  $\Delta_t \to 0$ . Since  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are absolutely continuous,  $(\alpha(s_i) - \alpha(s_{i-1})) \to 0$  and  $(\beta(s_i) - \beta(s_{i-1})) \to 0$ . The union of the horizontal (resp. vertical bars) in Figure 2(a) tends to the region  $W_y$  (resp.  $W_x$ ) in

$$\iint_{\mathcal{W}} w_x(v_x, p) dv_x dv_y + \iint_{\mathcal{W}} w_y(v_y, q) dv_x dv_y \tag{4.5}$$

depends on only the rate-allocation curve  $\Gamma$  which coordinates the progress of source descriptions at A and B. Since  $W_x \cup W_y$  is independent of  $\Gamma$ , (4.5) is minimized when  $W_x = W_x^* := \{(v_x, v_y) \in [0, 1-p] \times [0, 1-q] : w_x(v_x, p) \le w_y(v_y, q)\} \cup [0, 1-p] \times [1-q, 1]$ . For  $q \ge p$ , the boundary  $\Gamma^*$  separating  $W_x^*$  and  $W_y^*$  is given by the piecewise linear curve connecting (0, 0), ((q-p)/q, 0), (1-p, 1-q) in that order (see Figure 2(c)).

For  $W_x = W_x^*$ , (4.5) can be evaluated in closed form and is given by

Figure 2(b). Hence an achievable infinite-message sum-rate given by

$$h_2(p) + ph_2(q) + p\log_2 q + p(1-q)\log_2 e.$$
 (4.6)

Recall that  $R_{sum,2}^A = h_2(p) + ph_2(q)$ . The difference  $p(\log_2 q + (1-q)\log_2 e)$  is an increasing function of q for  $q \in (0,1]$  and equals 0 when q=1. Hence the difference is negative for  $q \in (0,1)$ . So  $R_{sum,\infty} < R_{sum,2}^A$  and interaction does help. In particular, when p=q=1/2,  $((X,Y) \sim \text{iid } Ber(1/2))$ , by an infinite-message code, we can achieve the sum-rate  $(1+(\log_2 e)/4) \approx 1.361$ , compared with the 3-message achievable sum-rate 1.406 and

the 2-message minimum sum-rate 1.5 in Example IV-E. It should be noted that for finite t,  $\Gamma$  is staircase-like and contains horizontal and vertical segments. However,  $\Gamma^*$  contains an oblique segment. So the code with finite t generated in this way never achieves the infinite-message sum-rate. It can be approximated only when  $t \to \infty$  and each message uses an infinitesimal rate.

Note that the achievable sum-rate (4.5) is not shown to be the optimal sum-rate  $R_{sum,\infty}$  because we only consider a particular construction of the auxiliary random variables. We have, however, the following lower bound for  $R_{sum,\infty}$  which can be proved by a technique which is similar to the proof of Theorem 2.

Theorem 4: If  $X \perp Y, X \sim Ber(p), Y \sim Ber(q), f_A(x, y) = f_B(x, y) = x \wedge y, 0 < p, q < 1$ , we have

$$R_{sum,\infty} \geq h_2(p) + h_2(q) - (1-pq)h_2\left(\frac{(1-p)(1-q)}{1-pq}\right).$$
 The proof is given in Appendix III. This lower bound is strictly less than (4.6) when  $0 < p, q < 1$ . For example,

The proof is given in Appendix III. This lower bound is strictly less than (4.6) when 0 < p, q < 1. For example, when p = q = 1/2,  $((X, Y) \sim \text{iid } Ber(1/2))$ , the bound in Theorem 4 gives us  $R_{sum,\infty} \ge (2 - (3/4)h_2(1/3)) \approx 1.311$ , compared with the infinite-message achievable sum-rate 1.361.

#### V. Multiterminal interactive function computation

We can consider multiterminal interactive function computation problems as generalizations of the two-terminal interactive function computation problem. At a high level, interactive function computation may be thought of as a form of distributed source coding with progressive levels of feedback. Although the multiterminal problem is significantly more intricate, important insights can be extracted by leveraging results for the two-terminal problem. The ability to progressively refine information bi-directionally in multiple rounds lies at the heart of interactive function computation. This ability to refine information can have a significant impact on the efficiency of information transport in large networks as discussed in Section V-C (see Example 3).

## A. Problem formulation

Let m be the number of nodes. Consider m statistically dependent discrete memoryless stationary sources taking values in finite alphabets. For each j, where j takes integer values 1 through m, let  $\mathbf{X}_j := (X_j(1), \dots, X_j(n)) \in (X_j)^n$  denote the n source samples which are available at node j. For  $i = 1, \dots, n$ , let  $(X_1(i), X_2(i), \dots, X_m(i)) \sim \text{iid } p_{X_1, \dots, X_m}$  where  $p_{X_1, \dots, X_m}$  is a joint pmf which describes the statistical dependencies among the samples observed at the m nodes at each time instant. For each j and i, let  $Z_j(i) := f_j(X_1(i), \dots, X_m(i)) \in \mathcal{Z}_j$  and let  $\mathbf{Z}_j := (Z_j(1), \dots, Z_j(n))$ . The tuple  $\mathbf{Z}_j$  denotes n samples of the samplewise function of all the sources which is desired to be computed at node j.

Let the topology of the network be characterized by a directed graph  $\mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E})$ , where  $\mathcal{V} := \{1, \dots, m\}$  is the vertex set of all the nodes and  $\mathcal{E}$  is the edge set of all the directed links which are available for communication. The network topology describes the connectivity and information flow constraints in the network. It is assumed that the topology is consistent with the goals of function computation, that is, for every node which computes a nontrivial function which depends on the source samples at other nodes, there exists a set of directed paths over which information can be transferred from the relevant nodes to perform the computation. In order to perform the computations, a t-round multiterminal interactive distributed source code for function computation can be defined by extending the notion of a t-round concurrent-message interactive code for the two-terminal problem (see Section II-E) in the following manner. In the i-th round, where i takes integer values 1 through t, for each directed link  $(j,k) \in \mathcal{E}$ , a message  $M_{jki}$  is generated at node j as a pre-specified deterministic function of  $\mathbf{X}_j$  and all the messages to and

from this node in all the previous rounds. Then all the messages in the *i*-th round are transferred concurrently over all the available directed links. After t rounds, at each node j, a decoding function reproduces  $\mathbf{Z}_j$  as  $\widehat{\mathbf{Z}}_j$  based on  $\mathbf{X}_j$  and all the messages to and from this node. As part of the t-round interactive code specification, a message over any link in any round is allowed to be a null message, i.e, no message is sent over the link, and this is known in advance as part of the code. By incorporating null messages, the concurrent-message interactive coding scheme described above subsumes all conceivable types of interaction. Let a link be called *active* in a given round if it does not carry a null message in that round. For each round i, let  $\mathcal{E}_i$  denote the subset of directed links in  $\mathcal{E}$  which are active. A t-round interaction protocol is the sequence of directed subgraphs  $\mathcal{E}_1, \ldots, \mathcal{E}_t$  which describes how the nodes are permitted to exchange messages over different rounds. This controls the dynamics of information flow in the network.

Our key point of view, illustrated in Figure 3, is that, interactive function computation is at its heart, an interaction protocol which successively switches the information-flow topology among several basic distributed source coding configurations. In the two-terminal case, the alternating-message interaction protocol is simple: messages alternate from one node to the other; the only free parameter in the protocol being the initial node which must be chosen to minimize the sum rate. For this protocol, there is essentially only one type of configuration and accordingly only one basic distributed source coding strategy, namely, Wyner-Ziv-like coding with all the previously received messages as common side-information available to both the nodes. The multiterminal case is, however, significantly more intricate. For instance, with three nodes there are several basic configurations in addition to the point-to-point one, e.g., many-to-one, one-to-many, and relay as shown in Figure 3.

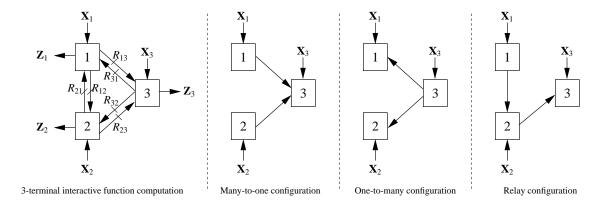


Fig. 3. Interactive function computation can be viewed as an interaction protocol which successively switches among several basic distributed source coding configurations.

The efficiency of communication for function computation can be measured at various levels. The most precise characterization would be in terms of the  $(t|\mathcal{E}|)$ -dimensional rate tuple  $(R_{jk})_{(j,k)\in\mathcal{E},i=1,...,t}$  corresponding to the number of bits per sample in *each link* in *each round*. A coarser characterization would be in terms of the  $|\mathcal{E}|$ -dimensional total-rate tuple  $(R_{jk})_{(j,k)\in\mathcal{E}}$ , where  $R_{jk}$  is the total number of bits per sample transferred through link (j,k) in *all the rounds*. The coarsest characterization would be in terms of the sum-total-rate which is the sum of the total number of bits per sample in *all the rounds* through *all the links*. One can then define admissible rates, admissible total-rates, and the minimum sum-total-rate  $R_{sum,t}$ , following Definition 2, in terms of rates for which there exist encoding and decoding functions for which the block error probability of function computation goes to zero as

the blocklength goes to infinity. Let  $t^*$  denote the minimum number of rounds for which function computation is feasible. Computation is nontrivial if  $t^* \ge 1$ . Clearly,  $t^*$  is not more than the diameter of the largest connected component of the network which is itself not more than (m-1). Hence  $t^* \le (m-1)$ . We will consider interaction to be useful if  $R_{sum,t} < R_{sum,t^*}$  for some  $t > t^*$ .

The search for an optimum interactive code is a twofold search over all interaction protocols and over all distributed source codes. The interaction protocol dictates which nodes transmit and which nodes receive messages in each round. The distributed source code dictates what information to send and how to decode it. In the two-terminal case, the standard machinery of random coding and binning is adequate to characterize the rate region and the minimum sum rate because it can be viewed as a sequence of Wyner-Ziv-like codes. In the multiterminal case, however, finding a computable characterization of the rate regions in terms of single-letter information measures can be challenging because the rate regions for even non-interactive special cases, such as the many-to-one, one-to-many, and relay configurations (see Figure 3) are longstanding open problems. For many of these configurations, the standard machinery of random coding and binning fall short of giving the optimal performance as exemplified by the Körner-Marton problem [10]. These difficulties notwithstanding, results for the two-terminal interactive function computation problem can be used to develop insightful performance bounds and architectural guidelines for the general multiterminal problems. This is discussed in the following two subsections.

#### B. Cut-set bounds

Given any *t*-round multiterminal interactive function computation problem, we can formulate a *t*-round two-terminal interactive function computation problem with concurrent messages by regarding a set of nodes  $S \subseteq V$  as one terminal and the complement  $S^c$  as the other. The minimum sum-rate for this two-terminal problem is a lower bound for the minimum sum-total-rate between S and  $S^c$  in the original multiterminal problem.

Let  $R_{A,B} := \sum_{j \in A, k \in B, (j,k) \in \mathcal{E}} R_{jk}$  denote the sum-total-rate from a set of nodes A to a set of nodes B (over all rounds and over all available directed links from A to B). Let  $R_{sum,t}^{S,S^c}$  denote the minimum sum-rate of the t-round two-terminal problem with concurrent messages with sources  $(X_j)_{j \in S}$  at A and  $(X_j)_{j \in S^c}$  at B and functions  $(f_j(X^m))_{j \in S}$  and  $(f_j(X^m))_{j \in S^c}$  to be computed at A and B respectively. A systematic method for developing cut-set lower bounds for the minimum sum-total-rate of the t-round multiterminal problem is to formulate a linear program with  $(R_{jk})_{(j,k) \in \mathcal{E}}$  as the variables and the sum-total-rate  $\sum_{(j,k) \in \mathcal{E}} R_{jk}$  as the linear objective function to be minimized subject to the following linear inequality constraints:  $\forall S \subseteq \mathcal{V}$ ,  $R_{S,S^c} \geq H((f_j(X^m))_{j \in S^c}|(X_j)_{j \in S^c})$ ,  $R_{S^c,S} \geq H((f_j(X^m))_{j \in S}|(X_j)_{j \in S})$ ,  $(R_{S,S^c}+R_{S^c,S}) \geq R_{sum,t}^{S,S^c}$ , and  $R_{jk} \geq 0$ ,  $\forall j \neq k$ . Note that the first two constraints respectively come from the first two terms on the right side of Corollary 1 (ii). Such cut-set bounds can often provide insights into when interaction may be useful and when it may not be (see examples below).

## C. Examples

Example 1: Consider three nodes with sources  $(X_1, X_2) \sim \text{DSBS}(p)$ ,  $p \in (0, 1)$ , and  $X_3 = 0$ . The functions desired at nodes 1, 2, and 3 are  $f_1 = 0$ ,  $f_2 = 0$ , and  $f_3(x_1, x_2) = x_1 \oplus x_2$  respectively. In other words, correlated sources  $\mathbf{X}_1$  and  $\mathbf{X}_2$  are available at nodes 1 and 2 respectively, and node 3 needs to compute the samplewise Boolean XOR function  $\mathbf{X}_1 \oplus \mathbf{X}_2$ . Assume that this three-terminal network has a fully connected topology  $\mathcal{E}$ .

First consider the 1-round many-to-one interaction protocol given by  $\mathcal{E}_1 = \{(1,3),(2,3)\}$ . Under this interaction protocol, the distributed function computation problem reduces to the Körner-Marton problem [10] and is illustrated in Figure 4(a). The distributed source coding scheme of Körner and Marton based on binary linear codes (see [10])

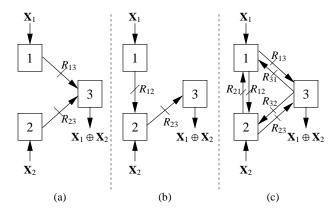


Fig. 4. (a) Many-to-one Körner-Marton scheme. (b) Relay scheme. (c) General interactive scheme. When  $(X_1, X_2) \sim DSBS(p)$ ,  $p \in (0, 1)$ , all three schemes have the same minimum sum-total-rate  $2h_2(p)$ .

achieves the goal of computing the Boolean XOR at node 3 with  $R_{131} = R_{231} = R_{13} = R_{23} = H(X_1 \oplus X_2) = h_2(p)$ . Hence the sum-total-rate of this non-interactive many-to-one coding scheme is given by  $R_{13} + R_{23} = 2h_2(p)$  bits per sample. Thus, in this example  $t^* = 1$  and the coding is non-interactive.

Next, consider the 2-round relay-based interaction protocol given by  $\mathcal{E}_1 = \{(1,2)\}$  and  $\mathcal{E}_2 = \{(2,3)\}$  as illustrated in Figure 4(b). Consider the following coding strategy. Using Slepian-Wolf coding in the first round, with  $R_{121} = R_{12} = H(X_1|X_2) = h_2(p)$ ,  $\mathbf{X}_1$  can be reproduced at node 2. Then,  $\mathbf{X}_1 \oplus \mathbf{X}_2$  can be computed at node 2 and the result of the computation can be conveyed to node 3 in the second round by entropy-coding at the rate given by  $R_{232} = R_{23} = H(X_1 \oplus X_2) = h_2(p)$ . Hence the sum-total-rate of this relay scheme is given by  $R_{12} + R_{23} = 2h_2(p)$  bits per sample. Since under this protocol information is constrained to flow in only one direction from source node 1 to source node 2 in round one and then from node 2 to the destination node 3 in round two, distributed source codes which respect this protocol are, truly speaking, non-interactive.

Finally, consider general *t*-round interactive codes. The cut-set lower bound between  $\{1\}$  and  $\{2,3\}$  for computing  $\mathbf{X}_1 \oplus \mathbf{X}_2$  at  $\{2,3\}$  gives  $R_{12} + R_{13} \ge H(X_1 \oplus X_2 | X_2) = h_2(p)$ . Interchanging the roles of nodes 1 and 2 in the previous cut-set bound we also have  $R_{21} + R_{23} \ge H(X_1 \oplus X_2 | X_1) = h_2(p)$ . Adding these two bounds gives  $R_{12} + R_{13} + R_{21} + R_{23} \ge 2h_2(p)$ . Hence,  $R_{sum,t} \ge 2h_2(p)$ . This shows that the sum-total-rates of the many-to-one Körner-Marton and the relay schemes are optimum. No amount of interaction can reduce the sum-total-rate of these non-interactive schemes.

Example 2: Consider three nodes with sources  $(X_1, X_2) \sim \text{DSBS}(p)$ ,  $p \in (0, 1)$ , and  $X_3 = 0$ . The functions desired at nodes 1, 2, and 3 are  $f_1 = 0$ ,  $f_2 = 0$ , and  $f_3(x_1, x_2) = x_1 \wedge x_2$  respectively. In other words, correlated sources  $\mathbf{X}_1$  and  $\mathbf{X}_2$  are available at nodes 1 and 2 respectively, and node 3 needs to compute the samplewise Boolean AND function instead of the XOR function in Example 1. As in Example 1, assume that this three-terminal network has a fully connected topology  $\mathcal{E}$ .

Consider a general *t*-round interactive code with the following interaction protocol: for all i = 1, ..., t,  $\mathcal{E}_i = \{(1,3),(3,1),(2,3),(3,2)\}$  (see Figure 5(a)). Note that nodes 1 and 2 cannot directly communicate with each other under this interaction protocol. Due to Theorem 2, the cut-set lower bound between  $\{1\}$  and  $\{2,3\}$  for computing  $\mathbf{X}_1 \wedge \mathbf{X}_2$  at  $\{2,3\}$  is given by:  $R_{13} + R_{31} \geq H(X_1|X_2) = h_2(p)$ . Similarly, we have  $R_{23} + R_{32} \geq H(X_2|X_1) = h_2(p)$ .

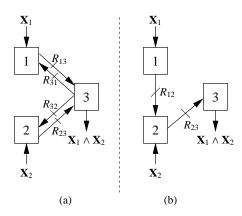


Fig. 5. (a) Interactive Many-to-one scheme. (b) Relay scheme. When  $(X_1, X_2) \sim DSBS(p)$  and  $p \in (1/3, 1)$ , the minimum sum-total-rate for (b) is less than that for (a).

Adding these two bounds gives  $R_{13} + R_{31} + R_{23} + R_{32} \ge 2h_2(p)$ . It should be clear that  $t^* = 1$  because nodes 1 and 2 can send all their source samples to node 3 in one round. If there is only one round, there is no advantage to be gained by transferring messages between nodes 1 and 2. This observation, together with the above cut-set bound shows that  $R_{sum,t^*} \ge 2h_2(p)$ .

Now consider the 2-round relay scheme illustrated in Figure 5(b). Using Slepian-Wolf coding in the first round, with  $R_{121} = R_{12} = H(X_1|X_2) = h_2(p)$ ,  $\mathbf{X}_1$  can be reproduced at node 2. Then,  $\mathbf{X}_1 \wedge \mathbf{X}_2$  can be computed at node 2 and the result of the computation can be conveyed to node 3 in the second round by entropy-coding at the rate given by  $R_{232} = R_{23} = H(X_1 \wedge X_2) = h_2\left(\frac{1-p}{2}\right)$ . Hence the sum-total-rate of this relay scheme is given by  $R_{12} + R_{23} = h_2(p) + h_2\left(\frac{1-p}{2}\right)$  bits per sample, which is less than  $2h_2(p)$  when p > 1/3. Thus, for p > 1/3,  $R_{sum,2} < R_{sum,4}$  and interaction is useful. In fact, when p > 1/3, a single message from node 1 to node 2 is more beneficial in terms of the sum-total-rate than multiple rounds of two-way communication between nodes 1 and 3 and between nodes 2 and 3.

Example 3: Consider  $m \ge 3$  nodes and m independent sources  $X_1, \ldots, X_m$  each of which is iid Ber(1/2). For each i, the i-th source  $X_i$  is observed at only the i-th node. Only node 1 needs to compute the function  $f_1(x^m) = \min_{j=1}^m (x_j)$ . Assume that the network has a star topology with node 1 as the central node as illustrated in Figure 6. Specifically, let  $\mathcal{E} = \{(j, 1), (1, j)\}_{j=2}^m$ .

Consider non-interactive coding schemes in which information is constrained to flow in only one direction from the leaf nodes to the central node as illustrated in Figure 6(a). Specifically, the interaction protocol is given by  $\mathcal{E}_i = \{(j,1)\}_{j=2}^m$  for each  $i=1,\ldots,t$ . Since information flows in only one direction from the leaf nodes to the central node, there is no loss of generality in assuming that t=1. For each  $j=2,\ldots,m$ , let us compute the cut-set bound  $R_{sum,t}^{\mathcal{S},\mathcal{S}^c}$  with  $\mathcal{S}=\{j\}$  and t=1. Using Lemma 2, we obtain  $R_{j1} \geq H(X_j|X_1,\ldots,X_{j-1},X_{j+1},\ldots,X_m) = H(X_j) = 1$ . Therefore,  $R_{sum,1} \geq (m-1)$ . Since this is achievable by transferring all the data to node 1,  $R_{sum,1} = (m-1) = \Theta(m)$ . Thus, in this example,  $t^*=1$ .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup>Truly speaking, this coding scheme is non-interactive because information flows in only one direction from node 1 to node 2 and then from node 2 to node 3.

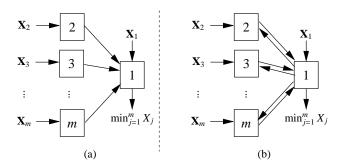


Fig. 6. (a) Non-interactive function computation. (b) Interactive function computation. When  $(X_1, ..., X_m) \sim iid Ber(1/2)$ , the minimum sumtotal-rate for (b) is orderwise smaller than that for (a).

Now consider the following (2m-2)-round interactive coding scheme in which information flows in both directions from the leaf nodes to the central node and back as illustrated in Figure 6(b). In round number (2i-1), where i ranges through integers from 1 through (m-1), node 1 sends the sequence  $\left(\min_{j=1}^{i}(X_{j}(k))\right)_{k=1}^{n}$  to node (i+1) at the rate  $R_{1(i+1)(2i-1)} = H(\min_{j=1}^{i}(X_{j})) = h_{2}(1/2^{i})$  bits per sample. Node (i+1) then computes the sequence  $\left(\min_{j=1}^{i+1}(X_{j}(k))\right)_{k=1}^{n}$  and sends it back to node 1 in round number 2i, using Slepian-Wolf coding (or conditional coding) with the previous message as correlated side information available to the decoder (and the encoder). This can be done at the rate given by  $R_{(i+1)1(2i)} = H(\min_{j=1}^{i+1}(X_{j})|\min_{j=1}^{i}(X_{j})) = 1/2^{i}$  bits per sample. It can be verified that the message sequence in round number (2m-2) is the desired function.

The sum-total-rate of this scheme is given by

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m-1} \left( h_2 \left( \frac{1}{2^i} \right) + \frac{1}{2^i} \right) \le \sum_{i=1}^{m-1} \left( \frac{1}{2^i} \log_2 e + \frac{i}{2^i} + \frac{1}{2^i} \right) < 3 + \log_2 e,$$

where the first inequality is because  $h_2(p) \le p \log_2(e/p)$ . Thus for all  $m \ge 6$ ,  $R_{sum,(2m-2)} < 3 + \log_2 e < 5 \le (m-1) = R_{sum,t^*}$ , showing that interaction is useful. In fact, the minimum sum-total-rate  $R_{sum,(2m-2)}$  is O(1) with respect to the number of nodes m in the network. This is orderwise smaller than  $\Theta(m)$  for any 1-round non-interactive coding scheme.<sup>8</sup>

The above examples can be interpreted in two ways. From the perspective of protocol design, these examples show that for a given topology, certain information-routing configurations are fundamentally more efficient than certain others for function computation. From the perspective of network architecture, these examples show that certain topologies are fundamentally more efficient than certain others for function computation. The last example shows that the scaling laws governing the information transport efficiency in large networks can be dramatically different depending on whether the information transport is interactive or non-interactive.

### VI. CONCLUDING REMARKS

In this paper, we studied the two-terminal interactive function computation problem within a distributed source coding framework and demonstrated that the benefit of interaction depends on both the function-structure and the

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup>Note the following: a) In studying how the minimum sum-total-rate scales with network size, the coding blocklength is out of the picture because it has already been "sent to infinity". b) Even though  $H(\min_{j=1}^m(X_j)) \to 0$  as  $m \to \infty$ , we cannot have nodes send nothing (t=0) and set the output of node 1 to be identically zero. This is because then the probability of block error will be equal to one.

distribution-structure. We formulated a multiterminal interactive function computation problem and demonstrated that interaction can change the scaling law of communication efficiency in large networks. There are several directions for future work. In two-terminal interactive function computation, a computable characterization of the infinite-message minimum sum-rate is still open. The achievable infinite-message sum-rate of Section IV-F involving definite integrals and a rate-allocation curve appears to be a promising approach. We have obtained only a partial characterization of the structure of functions and distributions for which interaction is not beneficial. An interesting direction would be to find necessary and sufficient conditions under which interaction is useful. The multiterminal interactive function computation problem is wide open. A promising direction would be to study how the total network rate scales with network size and understand how it is related to the network topology, the function structure, and the distribution-structure.

#### APPENDIX I

#### THEOREM 1 CONVERSE PROOF

If a rate tuple  $\mathbf{R} = (R_1, \dots, R_t)$  is admissible for the *t*-message interactive function computation with initial location A, then  $\forall \epsilon > 0$ , there exists  $N(\epsilon, t)$ , such that  $\forall n > N(\epsilon, t)$  there exists an interactive distributed source code with initial location A and parameters  $(t, n, |\mathcal{M}_1|, \dots, |\mathcal{M}_t|)$  satisfying

$$\frac{1}{n}\log_2|\mathcal{M}_j| \le R_j + \epsilon, \quad j = 1, \dots, t,$$
$$\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{Z}_A \ne \widehat{\mathbf{Z}}_A) \le \epsilon, \quad \mathbb{P}(\mathbf{Z}_B \ne \widehat{\mathbf{Z}}_B) \le \epsilon.$$

Define auxiliary random variables  $\forall i = 1, ..., n$ ,  $U_1(i) := \{M_1, X(i-), Y(i+)\}$ , and for j = 2, ..., t,  $U_j := M_j$ .

Information inequalities: For the first rate, we have

$$n(R_{1} + \epsilon)$$

$$\geq H(M_{1})$$

$$\geq H(M_{1}|\mathbf{Y})$$

$$\geq I(M_{1}; \mathbf{X}|\mathbf{Y})$$

$$= H(\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{Y}) - H(\mathbf{X}|M_{1}, \mathbf{Y})$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} H(X(i)|Y(i)) - H(X(i)|X(i-), M_{1}, \mathbf{Y})$$

$$\geq \sum_{i=1}^{n} H(X(i)|Y(i)) - H(X(i)|X(i-), M_{1}, Y(i), Y(i+))$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} I(X(i); M_{1}, X(i-), Y(i+)|Y(i))$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} I(X(i); U_{1}(i)|Y(i)). \qquad (I.1)$$

For an odd  $j \ge 2$ , we have

$$n(R_{j} + \epsilon)$$

$$\geq H(M_{j})$$

$$\geq H(M_{j}|M^{j-1}, \mathbf{Y})$$

$$\geq I(M_{j}; \mathbf{X}|M^{j-1}, \mathbf{Y})$$

$$= H(\mathbf{X}|M^{j-1}, \mathbf{Y}) - H(\mathbf{X}|M^{j}, \mathbf{Y})$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} H(X(i)|X(i-), M^{j-1}, \mathbf{Y}) - H(X(i)|X(i-), M^{j}, \mathbf{Y})$$

$$\stackrel{(a)}{=} \sum_{i=1}^{n} H(X(i)|X(i-), M^{j-1}, Y(i), Y(i+))$$

$$-H(X(i)|X(i-), M^{j}, \mathbf{Y})$$

$$\geq \sum_{i=1}^{n} H(X(i)|X(i-), M^{j-1}, Y(i), Y(i+))$$

$$-H(X(i)|X(i-), M^{j}, Y(i), Y(i+))$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} I(X(i); M_{j}|M^{j-1}, X(i-), Y(i+), Y(i))$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} I(X(i); U_{j}|U_{1}(i), U_{2}^{j-1}, Y(i)). \tag{1.2}$$

Step (a) is because the Markov chain  $X(i) - (M^{j-1}, X(i-), Y(i), Y(i+)) - Y(i-)$  holds for each i = 1, ..., n. Similarly, for an even  $j \ge 2$ , we have

$$n(R_{j} + \epsilon)$$

$$\geq H(M_{j})$$

$$\geq I(M_{j}; \mathbf{Y}|M^{j-1}, \mathbf{X})$$

$$= H(\mathbf{Y}|M^{j-1}, \mathbf{X}) - H(\mathbf{Y}|M^{j}, \mathbf{X})$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} H(Y(i)|Y(i+), M^{j-1}, \mathbf{X}) - H(Y(i)|Y(i+), M^{j}, \mathbf{X})$$

$$\stackrel{(b)}{=} \sum_{i=1}^{n} H(Y(i)|Y(i+), M^{j-1}, X(i), X(i-))$$

$$-H(Y(i)|Y(i+), M^{j}, \mathbf{X})$$

$$\geq \sum_{i=1}^{n} H(Y(i)|Y(i+), M^{j-1}, X(i), X(i-))$$

$$-H(Y(i)|Y(i+), M^{j}, X(i), X(i-))$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} I(Y(i); M_{j}|M^{j-1}, X(i-), Y(i+), X(i))$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} I(Y(i); U_{j}|U_{1}(i), U_{2}^{j-1}, X(i)). \tag{I.3}$$

Step (b) is because the Markov chain  $Y(i) - (M^{j-1}, X(i), Y(i), Y(i)) - X(i)$  holds for each i = 1, ..., n.

By the condition  $\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{Z}_A \neq \widehat{\mathbf{Z}}_A) \leq \epsilon$  and Fano's inequality [5],

$$h_{2}(\epsilon) + \epsilon \log_{2}(|Z_{A}^{n}| - 1)$$

$$\geq H(\mathbf{Z}_{A}|M^{t}, \mathbf{X})$$

$$\geq \sum_{i=1}^{n} H(Z_{A}(i)|Z_{A}(i+), M^{t}, \mathbf{X})$$

$$\geq \sum_{i=1}^{n} H(Z_{A}(i)|Z_{A}(i+), Y(i+), M^{t}, \mathbf{X})$$

$$\stackrel{(c)}{=} \sum_{i=1}^{n} H(Z_{A}(i)|Y(i+), M^{t}, \mathbf{X})$$

$$\stackrel{(d)}{=} \sum_{i=1}^{n} H(Z_{A}(i)|Y(i+), M^{t}, X(i-), X(i))$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} H(Z_{A}(i)|U_{1}(i), U_{2}^{t}, X(i)). \tag{I.4}$$

Step (c) is because for each i,  $Z_A(i) = f_A(X(i), Y(i))$ . Step (d) is because the Markov chain  $Z_A(i) - (X(i), Y(i)) - (M^i, X(i-), X(i), Y(i+)) - X(i+)$  holds for each i. Similarly we also have

$$h_2(\epsilon) + \epsilon \log_2(|\mathcal{Z}_B^n| - 1) \ge \sum_{i=1}^n H(Z_B(i)|U_1(i), U_2^t, Y(i)).$$
 (I.5)

Timesharing: Then we introduce a timesharing random variable Q taking value in  $\{1, \ldots, n\}$  equally likely, which is independent of all the other random variables. Defining  $U_1 := (U_1(Q), Q), X := X(Q), Y := Y(Q), Z_A := Z_A(Q), Z_B := Z_B(Q)$ , we can continue (I.1) as

$$R_{1} + \epsilon \geq \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} I(X(i); U_{1}(i)|Y(i))$$

$$= I(X(Q); U_{1}(Q)|Y(Q), Q)$$

$$\stackrel{(e)}{=} I(X(Q); U_{1}(Q), Q|Y(Q))$$

$$= I(X; U_{1}|Y), \qquad (I.6)$$

where step (e) is because Q is independent of all the other random variables and the joint pmf of  $(X(Q), Y(Q)) \sim p_{XY}$  does not depend on Q. Similarly, (I.2) and (I.3) become

$$R_{j} + \epsilon \ge \begin{cases} I(X; U_{j} | Y, U^{j-1}), & j \ge 2, j \text{ odd,} \\ I(Y; U_{j} | X, U^{j-1}), & j \ge 2, j \text{ even.} \end{cases}$$
 (I.7)

(I.4) and (I.5) become

$$\frac{1}{n}h_2(\epsilon) + \epsilon \log_2 |\mathcal{Z}_A| \ge H(Z_A|U^t, X), \tag{I.8}$$

$$\frac{1}{n}h_2(\epsilon) + \epsilon \log_2 |\mathcal{Z}_B| \ge H(Z_B|U^t, Y). \tag{I.9}$$

Concerning the Markov chains, we can verify that  $U_1(i) - X(i) - Y(i)$  holds for each  $i = 1, \ldots, n$ ,  $\Rightarrow I(U_1(Q); Y(Q)|X(Q), Q) = 0 \Rightarrow I(U_1(Q), Q; Y(Q)|X(Q)) = 0 \Rightarrow I(U_1; Y|X) = 0$ . For each odd  $j \geq 2$ , we can verify that  $U_j - (X(i), U_1(i), U_2^{j-1}) - Y(i)$  holds for each  $i, \Rightarrow I(U_j; Y(Q)|X(Q), U_1(Q), U_2^{j-1}, Q) = 0 \Rightarrow I(U_j; Y|X, U^{j-1}) = 0$ . Similarly, we can prove the

Markov chains for even j's. So we have

$$I(U_j; Y|X, U^{j-1}) = 0, \quad j \text{ odd},$$
  
 $I(U_j; X|Y, U^{j-1}) = 0, \quad j \text{ even}.$  (I.10)

Cardinality bounds: The cardinalities  $|\mathcal{U}_j|$ ,  $j=1,\ldots,t$ , can be bounded as in (3.2) by counting the constraints that the  $U_j$ 's need to satisfy and applying the Carathéodory theorem recursively as explained below (also see [13]). Let  $U^t$  be a given set of random variables satisfying (I.6) to (I.10). If  $|\mathcal{U}_j|$ ,  $j=1,\ldots,t$  are larger than the alphabet sizes given by (3.2), it is possible to derive an alternative set of random variables satisfying (3.2) while preserving the values on the right side of (I.6) to (I.9) fixed by the given  $U^t$  as well as all the Markov chains (I.10) satisfied by the given  $U^t$ . The derivation of an alternative set of random variables from  $U^t$  has a recursive structure. Suppose that for  $j=1,\ldots,(k-1)$ , alternative  $U_j$  have been derived satisfying (3.2) without changing the right sides of (I.6) to (I.9) and without violating the Markov chain constraints (I.10). We focus on deriving an alternative random variable  $\widetilde{U}_k$  from  $U_k$ . We illustrate the derivation for only an odd-valued k. The joint pmf of  $(X,Y,U^t)$  can be factorized as

$$p_{XYU'} = p_{U_k} p_{XU^{k-1}|U_k} p_{Y|XU^{k-1}} p_{U'_{k+1}|XYU^k}$$
(I.11)

due to the Markov chain  $U_k - (X, U^{k-1}) - Y$ . It should be noted that  $Z_A$  and  $Z_B$  being deterministic functions of (X, Y) are conditionally independent of  $U^t$  given (X, Y). The main idea is to alter  $p_{U_k}$  to  $p_{\widetilde{U}_k}$  keeping fixed all the other factors on the right side of (I.11). We alter  $p_{U_k}$  to  $p_{\widetilde{U}_k}$  in manner which leaves  $p_{XYU^{k-1}}$  unchanged while simultaneously preserving the right sides of (I.6) to (I.9). Leaving  $p_{XYU^{k-1}}$  unchanged ensures that the Markov chain constraints (I.10) continue to hold for  $U^{k-1}$ . Fixing all the factors in (I.11) except the first ensures that the Markov chain constraints (I.10) continue to hold for  $(\widetilde{U}_k, U_{k+1}^t)$ . To keep  $p_{XYU^{k-1}}$  unchanged, it is sufficient to keep  $p_{XU^{k-1}}$  unchanged because  $p_{Y|XU^{k-1}}$  is kept fixed in (I.11). Keeping  $p_{XU^{k-1}}$  and  $p_{XU^{k-1}|U_k}$  fixed while altering  $p_{U_k}$  requires that

$$p_{XU^{k-1}}(x, u^{k-1}) = \sum_{u_k} p_{U_k}(u_k) p_{XU^{k-1}|U_k}(x, u^{k-1}|u_k)$$
(I.12)

hold all tuples  $(x, u^{k-1})$ . This leads to  $(|X| \prod_{j=1}^{k-1} |\mathcal{U}_j| - 1)$  linear constraints on  $p_{U_k}$  (the minus one is because  $\sum_{x,u^{k-1}} p_{XU^{k-1}}(x,u^{k-1}) = 1$ ). With  $p_{XYU^{k-1}}$  unchanged, the right sides of (I.6) and (I.7) for  $j = 1, \ldots, (k-1)$  also remain unchanged. For j = k, k odd, the right side of (I.7) can be written as follows

$$i_k = H(X|Y, U^{k-1}) - \sum_{u_k} p_{U_k}(u_k) H(X|Y, U^{k-1}, U_k = u_k).$$
(I.13)

The quantity  $i_k$  is equal to the value of  $I(X; U_k|Y, U^{k-1})$  evaluated for the original set of random variables  $U^t$  which did not satisfy the cardinality bounds (3.2). The quantities  $H(X|Y, U^{k-1})$ , and  $H(X|Y, U^{k-1}, U_k = u_k)$  in (I.13) are held fixed because  $p_{XYU^{k-1}}$  is kept unchanged and all factors except the first in (I.11) are fixed. In a similar manner, for each j > k, j odd, the right side of (I.7) can be written as follows

$$i_j = \sum_{u_k} p_{U_k}(u_k) I(X; U_j | Y, U^{k-1}, U_{k+1}^j, U_k = u_k),$$
(I.14)

where  $i_j$  is equal to the value of  $I(X; U_j | Y, U^{j-1})$  evaluated for the original  $U^t$  and  $I(X; U_j | Y, U^{k-1}, U_{k+1}^j, U_k = u_k)$  is held fixed for all j > k, j odd, because all factors except the first in (I.11) are fixed. Again, for each j > k, j even, the right side of (I.7) can be written as follows

$$i_j = \sum_{u_k} p_{U_k}(u_k) I(Y; U_j | X, U^{k-1}, U_{k+1}^j, U_k = u_k),$$
(I.15)

where  $i_j$  is equal to the value of  $I(Y; U_j | X, U^{j-1})$  evaluated for the original  $U^t$  and  $I(Y; U_j | X, U^{k-1}, U_{k+1}^j, U_k = u_k)$ is held fixed for all j > k, j even, because all factors except the first in (I.11) are fixed. The right sides of (I.8) and (I.9) respectively can also be written as follows

$$h_A = \sum_{u_k} p_{U_k}(u_k) H(Z_A | X, U^{k-1}, U_{k+1}^t, U_k = u_k),$$
(I.16)

$$h_{A} = \sum_{u_{k}} p_{U_{k}}(u_{k}) H(Z_{A}|X, U^{k-1}, U_{k+1}^{t}, U_{k} = u_{k}),$$

$$h_{B} = \sum_{u_{k}} p_{U_{k}}(u_{k}) H(Z_{A}|X, U^{k-1}, U_{k+1}^{t}, U_{k} = u_{k}),$$
(I.16)

where  $h_A$  and  $h_B$  are respectively equal to the values of  $H(Z_A|X,U^t)$  and  $H(Z_B|Y,U^t)$  evaluated for the original  $U^t$  and  $H(Z_A|X,U^{k-1},U^t_{k+1},U_k=u_k)$  and  $H(Z_A|X,U^{k-1},U^t_{k+1},U_k=u_k)$  are held fixed because  $Z_A$  and  $Z_B$  are deterministic functions of (X, Y) and all factors except the first in (I.11) are fixed.

Equations (I.13) through (I.17) impose (t-k+3) linear constraints on  $p_{U_k}$ . When the linear constraints imposed by (I.12) are accounted for, altogether there are no more than  $(|X| \prod_{j=1}^{k-1} |\mathcal{U}_j| + t - k + 2)$  linear constraints on  $p_{U_k}$ . The vector  $(\{p_{XU^{k-1}}(x, u^{k-1})\}, i_k, \dots, i_t, h_A, h_B)$  belongs to the convex hull of  $|\mathcal{U}_k|$  vectors whose  $(|\mathcal{X}| \prod_{j=1}^{k-1} |\mathcal{U}_j| + t - k + 2)$ components are given by  $\{p_{XU^{k-1}|U_k}(x, u^{k-1}|u_k)\}$ ,  $H(X|Y, U^{k-1}, U_k = u_k)$ ,  $\{I(X; U_j|Y, U^{k-1}, U_{k+1}^j, U_k = u_k)\}_{j>k, j:odd}$ ,  $\{I(Y; U_j|X, U^{k-1}, U_{k+1}^j, U_k = u_k)\}_{j>k, j:even}, H(Z_A|X, U^{k-1}, U_{k+1}^t, U_k = u_k), H(Z_A|X, U^{k-1}, U_{k+1}^t, U_k = u_k).$  By the Carathéodory theorem,  $p_{U_k}$  can be replaced by  $p_{\widetilde{U}_k}$  such that the new random variable  $\widetilde{U}_k \in \widetilde{\mathcal{U}}_k$  where  $\widetilde{\mathcal{U}}_k \subseteq \mathcal{U}_k$  contains only  $(|X| \prod_{i=1}^{k-1} |\mathcal{U}_i| + t - k + 3)$  elements, while (I.10) and the right sides of (I.6) to (I.9) remain unchanged. Taking limits: Thus far, we have shown that  $\forall \epsilon > 0$  and  $\forall n > N(\epsilon, t)$ ,  $\exists p_{U'|XY}(u^t|x, y, \epsilon, n)$  such that  $U^t$  satisfy (3.2) and (I.6) to (I.10). It should be noted that  $p_{U'|XY}(u^t|x, y, \epsilon, n)$  may depend on  $(\epsilon, n)$ , whereas  $\forall j = 1, \dots, t, |\mathcal{U}_j|$  is finite and independent of  $(\epsilon, n)$ . Therefore, for each  $(\epsilon_0, n_0)$ ,  $p_{U'|XY}(u^t|x, y, \epsilon_0, n_0)$  is a finite dimensional stochastic matrix taking values in a compact set. Let  $\{\epsilon_i\}$  be any sequence of real numbers such that  $\epsilon_i > 0$  and  $\epsilon_i \to 0$ as  $l \to \infty$ . Let  $\{n_l\}$  be any sequence of blocklengths such that  $n_l > N(\epsilon_l, t)$ . Since  $p_{U^l|XY}$  lives in a compact set, there exists a subsequence of  $\{p_{U^t|XY}(u^t|x, y, \epsilon_l, n_l)\}$  converging to a limit  $p_{\bar{U}^t|XY}(u^t|x, y)$ . Denote the auxiliary random variables derived from the limit pmf by  $\bar{U}^t$ . Due to the continuity of conditional mutual information and conditional entropy measures, (I.6) to (I.10) become

$$R_{j} \geq \begin{cases} I(X; \bar{U}_{j}|Y, \bar{U}^{j-1}), & I(\bar{U}_{j}; Y|X, \bar{U}^{j-1}) = 0, \quad j \text{ odd,} \\ I(Y; \bar{U}_{j}|X, \bar{U}^{j-1}), & I(\bar{U}_{j}; X|Y, \bar{U}^{j-1}) = 0, \quad j \text{ even,} \end{cases}$$

$$H(Z_{A}|\bar{U}^{t}, X) = 0, \quad H(Z_{B}|\bar{U}^{t}, Y) = 0.$$

Therefore **R** belongs to right side of (3.1).

Remarks: The convexity of the theoretical characterization of the rate region can be established in a manner similar to the timesharing argument in the above proof. The closedness of the region can also be shown established in a manner similar to the limit argument in the last paragraph of the above proof using the following facts: (i) All the alphabets are finite, thus  $p_{U^T|XY}$  takes values in a compact set. Therefore the limit point of a sequence of conditional probabilities exists. (ii) Conditional mutual information measures are continuous with respect to the probability distributions.

# APPENDIX II

## Proofs of Theorems 2 and 3

Proof of Theorem 2: We need to show that  $R_{sum,t}^A \ge H(X|Y)$  only for  $p,q \in (0,1)$ . If  $p,q \in (0,1)$  then  $p_{XY}(x,y) > 1$  $0, \forall (x, y) \in X \times \mathcal{Y}$ . Let  $U^t$  be any set of auxiliary random variables in (3.3) satisfying all the Markov chain and

conditional entropy constraints of (3.1). Due to Lemma 1(i), for any  $u^t$ ,  $\mathcal{A}(u^t)$  is a rectangle of  $X \times \mathcal{Y}$ . Due to Lemma 1(iii) and the assumption that  $f_B(0, y_0) \neq f_B(1, y_0)$ ,  $\mathcal{A}(u^t)$  cannot be  $X \times \mathcal{Y}$ . Therefore  $\mathcal{A}(u^t)$  could be a row of  $X \times \mathcal{Y}$ , a column, a singleton, or the empty set. Let

$$\phi(u^t) := \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } \mathcal{A}(u^t) \text{ is empty} \\ 1, & \text{if } \mathcal{A}(u^t) \text{ is a row of } X \times \mathcal{Y} \\ 2, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Now,  $p_{U^t}(u^t) = 0 \Leftrightarrow \mathcal{H}(u^t)$  is empty. Therefore

$$p_{\phi(U^t)}(0) = \sum_{u^t: \mathcal{A}(u^t) \text{ is empty}} p_{U^t}(u^t) = \sum_{u^t: p_{U^t}(u^t) = 0} p_{U^t}(u^t) = 0.$$

Hence  $p_{XY\phi(U^t)}(x,y,0) = 0$  for all x and y. By the definition of a row of  $X \times \mathcal{Y}$ , we have  $H(X|U^t,\phi(U^t)=1)=0$ , which implies that  $H(X|Y,U^t,\phi(U^t)=1)=0$ . Similarly, we have  $H(Y|X,U^t,\phi(U^t)=2)=0$ . Loosely speaking, this means that knowing the auxiliary random variables  $U^t = u^t$  (representing the messages in the proof of achievability), there are only two possible alternatives, (1)  $H(Y|X,U^t=u^t)=0$ , that is, **Y** can be reproduced at location A; (2)  $H(X|Y,U^t=u^t)=0$ , **X** can be reproduced at location B. Thus interestingly, although the goal was to only compute a function of sources at location B, after t messages have been communicated, each location can, in fact, reproduce a part of the source from the other location. In the case where **X** is not known at location B, **Y** must be known at location A.

To continue the proof, for any  $t \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ ,

$$\begin{split} R_{sum,t}^A &= & \min[I(X;U^t|Y) + I(Y;U^t|X)] \\ &= & \min[H(X|Y) - H(X|Y,U^t,\phi(U^t)) \\ &+ H(Y|X) - H(Y|X,U^t,\phi(U^t))] \\ \stackrel{(a)}{=} & \min[H(X|Y) - H(X|Y,U^t,\phi(U^t) = 2)p_{\phi(U^t)}(2) \\ &+ H(Y|X) - H(Y|X,U^t,\phi(U^t) = 1)p_{\phi(U^t)}(1) \\ &= & \min[H(X|Y) - H(Y \oplus W|Y,U^t,\phi(U^t) = 2)p_{\phi(U^t)}(2) \\ &+ H(Y|X) - H(X \oplus W|X,U^t,\phi(U^t) = 1)p_{\phi(U^t)}(1) \\ &\geq & \min[H(X|Y) - H(W|\phi(U^t) = 2)p_{\phi(U^t)}(2) \\ &+ H(Y|X) - H(W|\phi(U^t) = 1)p_{\phi(U^t)}(1) \\ &= & \min[H(X|Y) + H(Y|X) - H(W|\phi(U^t))] \\ &\geq & H(X|Y) + H(Y|X) - H(W) \\ \stackrel{(b)}{=} & H(X|Y), \end{split}$$

where all the minimizations above are subject to all the Markov chain and conditional entropy constraints in (3.1). In step (a) we used the conditions  $H(X|Y, U^t, \phi(U^t) = 1) = 0$  and  $H(Y|X, U^t, \phi(U^t) = 2) = 0$  and in step (b) we used the fact that  $H(Y|X) = H(W) = h_2(p)$ .

*Proof of Theorem 3:* This follows immediately by examining the proof of Theorem 2 and making the following observations. Observe that  $\mathcal{A}(u^t)$  can be only a subset of a row or a column. This follows from the first assumption in the statement of the theorem that these are the only column-wise  $f_B$ -monochromatic rectangles of  $X \times \mathcal{Y}$ . Next

observe that if

$$\phi(u^t) := \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } \mathcal{A}(u^t) \text{ is empty} \\ 1, & \text{if } \mathcal{A}(u^t) \text{ is a subset of a row of } X \times \mathcal{Y} \\ 2, & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

then  $H(X|Y, U^t, \phi(U^t) = 1) = 0$  and  $H(Y|X, U^t, \phi(U^t) = 2) = 0$  as in the proof of Theorem 2. Finally observe that the the series of information-inequalities in previous proof will continue to hold if  $X \oplus W$  and  $Y \oplus W$  are replaced by  $\psi(X, W)$  and  $\eta(Y, W)$  respectively. This is due to the second assumption in the statement of the theorem which also states that H(Y|X) = H(W).

#### APPENDIX III

#### THEOREM 4 PROOF

Since 0 < p, q < 1,  $p_{XY}(x, y) > 0$ ,  $\forall (x, y) \in X \times \mathcal{Y}$ . Let  $U^t$  be any set of auxiliary random variables in (3.3) satisfying all the Markov chain and conditional entropy constraints of (3.1). Due to Lemma 1(i) and (iv), for any  $u^t$ ,  $\mathcal{A}(u^t)$  is a  $f_A$ -monochromatic rectangle of  $X \times \mathcal{Y}$ . Since  $f_A(x, y) = x \wedge y$ ,  $\mathcal{A}(u^t)$  can be  $\{(0, 0), (0, 1)\}$ ,  $\{(0, 0), (1, 0)\}$ , any singleton  $\{(x, y)\}$ , or the empty set. Let

$$\phi(u^t) := \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } \mathcal{A}(u^t) \text{ is empty} \\ 1, & \text{if } \mathcal{A}(u^t) = \{(1, 1)\} \\ 2, & \text{if } \mathcal{A}(u^t) \ni (1, 0) \\ 3, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Since,  $p_{U^t}(u^t) = 0 \Leftrightarrow \mathcal{A}(u^t)$  is empty,  $p_{\phi(U^t)}(0) = 0$ . Therefore  $p_{XY\phi(U^t)}(x, y, 0) = 0$  for all x and y. When X = Y = 0,  $\phi(U^t)$  can be only 2 or 3, that is,  $p_{XY\phi(U^t)}(0, 0, 0) = p_{XY\phi(U^t)}(0, 0, 1) = 0$ . The condition  $p_{XY\phi(U^t)}(0, 0, 0) = 0$  is obvious. To see why  $p_{XY\phi(U^t)}(0, 0, 1) = 0$  is true, note that  $\phi(u^t) = 1$  if, and only if,  $\mathcal{A}(u^t) = \{(1, 1)\}$ , which implies that  $p_{XYU^t}(0, 0, u^t) = 0$  because  $\mathcal{A}(u^t)$  is the set of all (x, y) for which  $p_{XYU^t}(x, y, u^t) > 0$  and (0, 0) is not in it. Therefore,

$$p_{XY\phi(U^t)}(0,0,1) = \sum_{u^t: \mathcal{A}(u^t) = \{(1,1)\}} p_{XYU^t}(0,0,u^t) = 0.$$

Reasoning in a similar fashion, we can summarize the relationship between X, Y, and  $\phi(U^t)$  as shown in Table I. For each value of (x, y), the values of  $\phi(U^t)$  shown in the table are those values for which  $p_{XY\phi(U^t)}$  is possibly nonzero, that is, for all values of  $\phi$  different from those shown in the table, the value of  $p_{XY\phi(U^t)}$  is zero. For example, the entry "X = 0, Y = 0,  $\phi(U^t) = 2$  or 3" means that for  $i \neq 2, 3$ ,  $p_{XY\phi(U^t)}(0, 0, i) = 0$ .

TABLE I  $\label{eq:relation} \text{Relation between } X,Y \text{ and } \phi(U^t)$ 

|       | Y = 0                         | Y = 1           |
|-------|-------------------------------|-----------------|
| X = 0 | $\phi(U^t) = 2 \text{ or } 3$ | $\phi(U^t) = 3$ |
| X = 1 | $\phi(U^t)=2$                 | $\phi(U^t) = 1$ |

Let  $\lambda := p_{\phi(U^t)|X,Y}(2|0,0)$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} p_{\phi(U^{t})}(0) &= 0, \\ p_{\phi(U^{t})}(1) &= p_{XY}(1,1), \\ p_{\phi(U^{t})}(2) &= p_{XY}(1,0) + \lambda p_{XY}(0,0), \\ p_{\phi(U^{t})}(3) &= p_{XY}(0,1) + (1-\lambda)p_{XY}(0,0). \end{aligned}$$

For any  $t \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ ,

$$\begin{split} R_{sum,t}^{A} &= & \min[I(X;U^{t}|Y) + I(Y;U^{t}|X)] \\ &= & \min[I(X;U^{t},\phi(U^{t})|Y) + I(Y;U^{t},\phi(U^{t})|X)] \\ &\geq & \min[I(X;\phi(U^{t})|Y) + I(Y;\phi(U^{t})|X)] \\ &= & \min[I(X|Y) + H(Y|X) - H(X|Y,\phi(U^{t})) - H(Y|X,\phi(U^{t}))] \\ &= & \min[h_{2}(p) + h_{2}(q) - H(X|Y = 0,\phi(U^{t}) = 2)p_{\phi(U^{t})}(2) \\ &- H(Y|X = 0,\phi(U^{t}) = 3)p_{\phi(U^{t})}(3)] \\ &\geq & \min_{0 \leq A \leq 1} \left[h_{2}(p) + h_{2}(q) - h_{2}\left(\frac{p_{XY}(1,0)}{p_{\phi(U^{t})}(2)}\right)p_{\phi(U^{t})}(2) \\ &- h_{2}\left(\frac{p_{XY}(0,1)}{p_{\phi(U^{t})}(3)}\right)p_{\phi(U^{t})}(3)\right], \end{split}$$

where all the minimizations above except the last one are subject to all the Markov chain and conditional entropy constraints in (3.1). The last expression is minimized when  $\lambda_* = q(1-p)/(p+q-2pq)$ . Evaluating the minimum value of the objective function, we have

$$R_{sum,\infty} = \lim_{t \to \infty} R_{sum,t}^A \ge h_2(p) + h_2(q) - (1 - pq)h_2\left(\frac{(1 - p)(1 - q)}{1 - pq}\right).$$

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